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FRENCH GRAMMAR MADE CLEAR

FOR USE

IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

BY

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FRENCH GRAMMAR
MADE CLEAR

FOREWORD

TO THE STUDENT

This book was written for you—not for your teacher who has a large library of learned works, but for you. Every word of it was chosen, every typographical arrangement devised for you. You will notice that although in most cases examples are given first in English with the French translation after, the contrary order occasionally appears. This is not the result of arbitrariness but of the consideration of what you will sometimes prefer. Your needs were considered in everything.

Some people contend that we can learn a language without learning the grammar of that language: they even say that we learn it better that way. In fact, there is no doubt that the quickest method for learning a language is to speak it with people who know it well, and the next quickest is to read good books written in that language. But you certainly know, in your own school, boys or girls who have learned French in Europe or with a French governess and who, nevertheless, surprise their teacher by their mistakes in speaking. And you probably know people who read French as easily as English but cannot write six lines in French correctly. Ask a few questions and you

will invariably find that these people have never studied a French grammar and are ready to admit that their hesitations have no other cause than their ignorance of the grammar.

*N*obody knows, really knows, a language, without knowing the grammar of that language.

But what is a grammar? Is it the work of a legislator we have to obey implicitly? Is it a collection of formulas so final that they cannot be altered in one syllable and must be remembered as they are or not at all?

Some people imagine this, and it goes a long way towards explaining their antagonism to grammars.

But grammars are neither codes nor formulas: they are merely the explanation of certain ways of speaking. When a person asks another: what is "five hundred" in French? —"*Cinq cents*"— And what is "five hundred and ten"?— "*Cinq cent dix*"; if the person who knows French better points out to the other that *cent* takes an s in the plural when there is no other figure after it, but does not take the s if it is followed by another figure, a grammatical rule is given in simple but excellent language. A grammar is merely a collection of such explanations: it is the description of a language from well-chosen examples.

This will explain to you why this grammar consists of questions and answers like the conversation mentioned above, why the technical language of grammarians is as much as possible avoided in it, and why examples are of such capital importance in its composition. You are not expected to remember VERBATIM any rules: you are expected to understand the difference between two ways of phrasing, in English and in French, and the best manner in which you can show that you have understood this difference is to invent an example of your own in imitation of the one given in the grammar.

A grammar is nothing if it is not helpful: it must be short enough to leave plenty of time for reading and conversation in class, but it must be complete enough not to omit anything, the absence of which might cause embarrassment, astonishment, or ultimately anxiety. The tendency in the composition of "French Grammar Made Clear" has been to leave out rather than crowd in. The author set himself a rule to which he has throughout adhered: admit nothing that may unduly complicate and leave out all that is not generally known *to an educated Frenchman.* Why burden the memory of an American boy or girl with niceties which even a French writer may not know?

Altogether you will soon realize that this book has been composed to enlighten, not dazzle you. It aims at being your friend as much as your own teacher is: the advice it gives, its efforts to be clear to the eye as well as to the mind, its anxiety to make use of what you are sure to know already in order to lead you on to what may be new to you (SEE treatment of the subjunctive, page 133), its decided optimism, are only aspects of the friendly attitude natural to one who has guided pupils and rejoiced in their progress all his life.

ERNEST DIMNET.

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drawn up in French, even when France happens not to be a signatory to them. Hence the importance given to the knowledge of French in distinguished or learned circles the world over.

2. What is the French language?

A glance at a French text will tell any one with a knowledge of Latin that the French language, as well as Italian or Spanish, is a derivative of Latin: ninety-nine in a hundred French words are of Latin origin. How this transformation took place, history tells us very clearly. When, in 50 B.C., Julius Caesar conquered the country which was to be called France, this territory was inhabited by communities of Gauls, established at favorable points along the larger rivers, and separated. the one from the other, by thick woodlands. In most of the cities which had so developed, the Romans kept garrisons and gradually disseminated their civilization in the course of four and a half centuries during which they held possession. When the invasions of the Franks (fifth century of the Christian era) compelled them to make way for the new-comers, the presence of the Roman armies, magistrates, schools, and shops, as well as frequent inter-marriages, had made Gaul as completely Latin as Mexico, originally Indian, had become Spanish when Spain had to renounce her rights there. Except in a few out-of-the-way districts where the Gallic language (akin to Gaelic) was still spoken, the Gauls had wholly forgotten their own dialects and spoke only Latin.

Was this Latin exactly similar to the language with which the works of Cicero and Virgil have

made us familiar? No, it was as different from it as American slang is different from the English of Lincoln. Even in Rome there were two varieties of Latin: one used by cultivated people who called a horse *equus* and a house *domus*, the other spoken by the lower classes who replaced these words by *caballus* and *mansio*. The Latin language used by the Roman armies (*sermo castrensis*) was this inferior Latin, made even more different from classical Latin by the miscellaneous origin of the men who spoke it. The Roman legions, as is well known, were largely recruited from barbarous tribes speaking various languages; necessity compelled these soldiers to adopt the language of their Roman comrades, (that is to say, the low Latin described above), but they seldom spoke it as Italian-born men did. Some of them could not pronounce an R, others could not pronounce a G, many sounded a D like a T, many others could not distinguish a B from a V, while nearly all of them were utterly ignorant of the delicate rules of Roman prosody and accented wrongly all but the simplest words. This was the kind of Latin which the majority of Gallo-Romans—as Romanized Gauls were called—had a chance to learn.

The Franks were not numerous—only about 30,000—and they were far from being superior in civilization to the people whom they were apparently dominating; in a generation or two they forgot their own Teutonic tongue and began to speak the language of the Gallo-Romans with hardly any modifications. However, the departure of the Romans left these ancestors of the French without a standard of language, and hence-

forth Latin was treated with as little regard for purity as English may be in a factory full of unamericanized foreigners coming from half a dozen different countries. The niceties of Latin declensions and conjugations were forgotten; consonants were interchanged in an apparently extraordinary manner (cf. "yep" for yes), many were suppressed (cf. "goo'bye" for good-bye, "twenny" for twenty); the vowels, being more delicate, passed through even worse deformations (cf. girl pronounced "goil," American pronounced "Amarican" or "Amurrican," "room" pronounced in the South of the United States, as in the South of England, as if oo were a French u, etc., etc.); above all, the accented syllable in every word tended to weaken or even to kill its neighbors (cf. "d'you 'member" for "do you remember," and the suppressions frequent in English versification.)

In the case of the Gallo-Romans, having no standard authorities to correct the popular faults and corruptions of speech, the results were: 1), a shortening of Latin words, due to the incapacity of untrained ears to perceive clearly any except the accented syllables (*bonitatem*, for instance, became *bontat*, and gradually *bonta* and *bonté*); 2), a transformation of vowels into very different sounds varying with the districts and giving rise to numerous dialects (for instance, REGEM became "ROI," which even now is pronounced "rwey" within a few miles of Paris, while in Italian it is RE, in Spanish REY).

These transformations were quick and multitudinous during the stage of the language known as

Old French (from the beginning of the ninth to the end of the thirteenth century). There was no standard of spelling or speaking, and the innumerable dialects were supposed to be one as good as the other. However, as the King, from his rather precarious position as mere lord of the Ile-de-France (the province roundabout Paris), slowly rose to superior authority, the language spoken by him and his court began to be regarded as the language of culture and fashion, and the other dialects fell to the lower rank of *patois*.* The craving of writers to be known and appreciated at court naturally worked in the same direction and when at last printing was invented, the Parisian language had for two hundred years been acknowledged as the standard of polished French. The frequent recurrence in it of mute e's, lending fullness and vibration to the preceding syllable, of softened LL's as in *fille* and *écaille*, and of the so-called nasal sounds (IN, ON, AN, UN), gave it a fluid quality and a harmony which the tap-tap of the *langue d'oc* or Southern French can never possess.

3. Is French a difficult language for English-speaking people to learn?

No language has so simple a grammar as English, and the consequence is that English-speaking people have a tendency to look upon the grammars of other languages as complicated. It is a fact that while English nouns denoting things are uniformly neuter, they are masculine or feminine in French;

* The Norman French spoken by the English Kings and by the majority of cultivated English people during the centuries immediately following the conquest by William the Conqueror was substantially the same as Parisian *picard*.

the adjective, too, which in English is undeclined, follows in French the gender of its accompanying noun and varies again as the noun is singular or plural; pronouns change in the same manner. Above all, by contrast to the simplicity of the English verb, French conjugations seem puzzling, and the irregular verbs are supposed to tax one's attention and memory in an extraordinary degree.

There is truth here. But there is no less truth in the fact that hundreds and thousands of Americans, especially women, speak French to perfection, and many more who have never made sufficient effort to master the spoken language read French books as if they were in their own tongue. A few simple rules and a little practise (by speaking and through reading very easy books) rob the French genders of their apparent difficulty, and the rules concerning the adjectives and pronouns become clear in consequence. Finally, it is doubtful whether the French conjugations would frighten any one if the irregular verbs—comparatively very few in number—were not so constantly described as a nightmare, which, in simple truth, they are not. A little method and moderate attention will show uniformity where there is supposed to be such disheartening diversity, but the method is all important: the first half hour spent over the French verbs ought to reassure the student for ever.

4. Is the French vocabulary a great difficulty?

Some people imagine so, but they are mistaken. Seventy per cent. of the English vocabulary is French in origin. Several thousand French words

(for instance, some twelve hundred ending in *tion* like *application, nation, ration*) are exactly similar to the English words which they translate, while some ten thousand more (as *exigence* for exigency, *papier* for paper) are so like their English counterparts that they are unmistakable. It can be said that any one who knows English knows some fifteen thousand French words before having consciously learned any French at all, and this accounts for so many people being able to guess at the meaning of a French newspaper without really knowing the language.

5. Is French difficult to pronounce?

Yes, for people who do not try or who foolishly imagine that they would appear ridiculous if they did try. Many people, supposed to enjoy exceptional opportunities for learning the French pronunciation, go on sounding foreign to the end of their lives because they make no effort of the sort required; others improve with astonishing rapidity because they realize that you no more learn how to pronounce a language merely by listening to, or even by living with, people who speak it than you learn to sing by going to the opera without ever practising singing. The only method is to copy or even mimic the intonation and sounds,—in a word, the placing of the French voice. Progress will be in keeping with the effort so made.

The student ought to aim, from the very first lesson, at a correct pronunciation of the French R—the real key to proper placing of the vocal organs —of the nasal sounds IN, ON, AN, UN, and of the

sounds represented by U, AU, and EU. The moment these are secured—and with some pupils it only takes half an hour to gain them—other details become easy.

6. Where is the best French spoken?

The French have an inborn taste for elegant language, and improve every opportunity they have of acquiring distinction in speech. It is not rare to see servants acquire their employers' pronunciation apparently without any effort. Provincialism in accent or choice of words seldom escapes being laughed out of a young man during his military service. The consequence is that a large proportion of French people speak well. In Paris most people have a good accent, and practically every child brought up there has a refined pronunciation. One may safely say that, apart from the South, where the language is pure but the pronunciation is peculiar, a foreigner has no difficulty in finding in every town, but above all in Paris, models of the very best speech. The difference in this respect between French and English-speaking countries is striking.

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GUAGE USES THE INFINITIVE. The all-important thing is never to make an attempt at remembering the rule, for examination purposes, before thoroughly understanding the example given. Some teachers wisely insist on the pupil's using in class an example of his own making instead of that given in the book, because this compels the student to understand instead of just merely remembering.

Not everything in French grammar is as simple as the use of the infinitive after prepositions. You may be set a more complicated lesson, for instance, the differences and similarities between the various groups of verbs in the present indicative:

AIMER	FINIR	RECEVOIR	RENDRE
J'aime	*Je finis*	*Je reçois*	*Je rends*
Tu aimes	*Tu finis*	*Tu reçois*	*Tu rends*
Il aime	*Il finit*	*Il reçoit*	*Il rend*
Nous aimons	*Nous finissons*	*Nous recevons*	*Nous rendons*
Vous aimez	*Vous finissez*	*Vous recevez*	*Vous rendez*
Ils aiment	*Ils finissent*	*Ils reçoivent*	*Ils rendent*

You will be frightened at first—less by the thing itself than by what you have heard of the difficulty of French verbs—but the moment you really examine the four models above —examine them as if they were four types of fountain pen—you will find with great satisfaction, 1) that the endings ONS, EZ, and ENT are everywhere the same in the plural; 2) that *finir, recevoir,* and *rendre* coincide even in the singular; and 3) that, after all, *aimer* differs from the others only in the first and third persons singular, which therefore are alone to be remembered, as exceptions. These three statements

make up the rule you are expected to find for yourself.

The moment you see such a rule clearly, *shut your book* and mentally rehearse the whole thing till you feel sure it cannot slip out of your memory. This practise will not only teach you the French grammar and the French language, but will also teach you concentration. It will strengthen your memory and, if you try to state what you have just learned logically, clearly, and in neat, accurate terms, it will teach you to think clearly and explain lucidly, which, after all, is the main object of education.

2. Is it advisable to learn French words systematically?

It is astonishing that some people should seriously ask such a question. Anybody who really wishes or needs to master a language learns words all the time. Read John Stuart Mill's fascinating *Autobiography:* you will see how as a very little boy he used constantly to note on cards the Greek words which his father taught him because there were at the time only Greek-Latin dictionaries and the child had been started on Greek before beginning Latin. The results were marvelous. Also people living in a foreign country have new words forced into their memory at every turn. One should strive to remember each word as if its meaning were never to be revealed to one again.

In fact nothing is easier than mastering the vocabulary. It does not take FIVE MINUTES TO LEARN TEN FRENCH WORDS, and if you learn ten words a day, in two years you will know nearly

eight thousand, an enormous supply. The secret is to learn the ten words *every day and at the same hour.*

3. How does one learn French words?

By looking intently, instead of merely glancing, at them, by repeating them, and by joining them to other words. Words can not be learned simply by being glanced at in a dictionary or casually heard in class. Like everything else they only become familiar upon long acquaintance. When you find in an exercise an English word the French equivalent of which is unknown to you, naturally you look it up. While it stands there before you, examine it a few moments, take in its physiognomy, listen to its sound, imagine the object it represents, think of its opposite, above all, *insert it in a sensible sentence,* and when this has been done write it down in a note-book kept at hand for the purpose. Do the same when you read a French text: dwell on every word you do not know, instead of just skimming over it. In this way, a valuable habit will soon be formed: some students show a surprising capacity for remembering long lists of new words.

You will find that four words which help one another because their combination has some meaning can be remembered more easily than two which have no connection. *Feu, charbon, chaudière, chauffeur,* will stay in your memory if you think of the locomotive while learning them and if you put them together in some such sentence as *"le chauffeur met du charbon sur le feu de la chaudière."*

You will remember words better by translating from English into French than by doing the reverse. Nothing will teach you words so infallibly as writing down in French what another person is dictating very slowly in English, and, immediately afterwards, having your mistakes pointed out to you. Observe that when you speak French you are translating from English. Merely guessing or remembering the meaning of a French word is not enough; what is necessary is to be able to find the French word when you are given its English equivalent.

4. How does one learn to think in French?

This may very easily be done by rewriting rapidly or summing up out loud a French passage one has just read. One should never construe more than ten lines without stopping, reading the passage over again, and repeating it in French, not *verbatim* but fluently and freely, thinking more of the words than of their syntax, which need not be correct at first.

People who know many languages generally learn them in that way, without any professors. The more words and languages you know, the more easily you learn others. Memory is not a box which must in time get filled up; it is a habit which, like a muscle, is strengthened by daily use.

ALPHABET

Letters:	Pronounced	Letters:	Pronounced
A	*a (in father)*	N	*enn*
B	*bé*	O	*o*
C	*cé*	P	*pé*
D	*dé*	Q	*kü*
E	*é*	R	*air*
F	*eff*	S	*ess*
G	*gé*	T	*té*
H	*âsh*	U	*ü*
I	*ee*	V	*vé*
J	*jee*	W	*double vé*
K	*kah*	X	*eex*
L	*ell*	Y	*i grec*
M	*emm*	Z	*zed*

Note.

1. Learn at once to give French letters their French name.
2. F, H, L, M, N, R, S, are feminine; ex.: *une* F; *une* S; but many educated French people say UN of all letters.

Accents:

There are three accents:

´ acute accent. Ex.: *épeler.*

` grave accent. Ex.: *à, très.*

^ circumflex accent. Ex.: *pâte, tête, côte, flûte.*

The acute accent is pronounced with the lips hardly opened; the grave accent with the lips moderately opened; the circumflex with the lips wide open.

PRONUNCIATION

1. What differences are there between the pronunciation of English and the pronunciation of French?

a) FRENCH IS SUBSTANTIALLY PRONOUNCED AS IT IS WRITTEN, whereas vowel sounds in English vary from one word to another. Why the sound of the final A in the English word *naval* should differ from the first, and why both A's in this word should not sound like A in *hat* is puzzling to foreigners.

b) FRENCH WORDS CAN BE SAID TO HAVE NO ACCENTED SYLLABLES although the last syllable is slightly emphasized: each syllable stands out clearly and independently from its neighbors. For instance, the word STRATAGÈME, which an English-speaking person naturally pronounces *strat' agem* is pronounced in French *stra - ta - gème,* and the three syllables have the same value (exactly as "one, two, three" is pronounced without any emphasis on any of the three numbers.)

c) THE FRENCH ALWAYS DIVIDE THEIR WORDS BY RESTING THE VOICE ON A VOWEL; for instance STRATAGÈME is pronounced *stra-ta-gème* and MONASTÈRE is pronounced *mo-na-stère*. The stressed syllables of the same words in English are divided after consonants (STRAT'-A-GEM; MON'-AS-TERY). The conse-

quence is important. We are tempted and practically compelled in English to give prominence to consonants, even to the extent of making them sound as though they were double (*stratt'agem, monn'astery*), and this imparts inevitable harshness to the pronunciation. The French use their teeth less and their lips more in speaking; T in *thé* is much softer than in *tea*.

d) LONG VOWELS IN FRENCH ARE SLIGHTLY LESS LONG THAN IN ENGLISH AND SHORT VOWELS ARE DECIDEDLY LONGER. For instance, A in the French word *bâton* is slightly shorter than A in *bark* (long A), but the same vowel in the French word *rat* is appreciably longer than in the English word *rat;* I in the French word *six* is shorter than EA in *cease* and longer than I in the English word *six*.

2. What is the pronunciation of French vowels?

A. A sounds like A in *father;* ex.: *fable.*
Â sounds like A in *bar;* ex.: *bâtir.*

E. E without any accent is mute at the end of a word, as in English; ex.: *page;* elsewhere it sounds like the first E in *veneer;* ex.: *venir.*
É sounds like AY in *bay,* but shorter and clear. ex.: *bénir.*
È sounds like E in *perish,* but a trifle longer; ex.: *père.*
Ê has the same sound but longer again; ex.: *tête.*

I. I has the sound of EE in *feet,* but shorter; ex.: *midi;*
Î now-a-days is hardly longer than I.

O. O sounds like the O in *botany;* ex.: *poli;* before an R it sounds like OA in *roar;* ex.: *aurore;*

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AN and frequently EN sound like AN(G); ex.: *sans, cent*;
EN not pronounced as above sounds approximately like AN in SANG; ex.: *chien;*
IN has the same sound; ex.: *chemin;*
ON sounds approximately as it does in WRONG; ex.: *bon;*
UN sounds approximately as UN in UNCLE, but the N is not perceived; ex: *brun.*

Note.

AN, EN, IN, ON are changed to AM, EM, IM, OM before the letters B and P; ex: *chambre, pompe,* but their sound remains the same.

5. How are French consonants pronounced?

As in English but with the following exceptions:

a) : B, D, P, S, T, X, at the end of a word are generally silent; ex.: *plomb, bond, loup, chiens, vent, deux.*

b) : R is silent when it ends verbs in ER (not verbs in IR and OIR); ex.: *aimer;* ending other words it is sounded; ex.: *cher, hier.*

c) : C before E and I has the same sound as S; ex.: *cerise, cinéma;* before A, O, and U it sounds like K unless it is printed ç (cedillá) in which case it sounds like S; ex.: *ça, aperçu.*

d) : G before A, O, U sounds as it does in GET; ex.: *gâter, goûter, aigu;* before E and I it sounds like S in PLEASURE; ex.: *geste, giffle.*
J always sounds like S in PLEASURE.

e) : H is sometimes mute; ex.: *histoire,* and sometimes aspirate; ex.: *hache.* When it is mute LE or LA become L'; ex.: *l'homme, l'histoire;* when it is

aspirate it is not sounded but LE or LA stand; ex.: *le héros, la hache,* and if the article is UN, UNE, the final N in UN is not sounded while the final E in UNE is sounded: UNE *hache.*

Note.

No rule, only usage can determine when H is aspirate or mute.

CH sounds like SH; ex.: *chanter;*
TH sounds like T; ex.: *théâtre.*

6. What is meant by liaison in French?

The sounding of a final letter otherwise mute before a word beginning with a vowel; for example, the S in *gros* is not sounded in *un gros livre,* but it sounds like Z in *un gros arbre;* again the T in *sont* is mute in *ils sont venus,,* but it is sounded in *ils sont arrivés.*

This is caused by the aversion the French have for any harsh combination of consonants.

The French ear is equally offended by what is called *hiatus,* viz., two harsh sounding vowels; the French language obviates the hiatus by inserting a T between the two vowels; ex.: *parle-t-elle? viendra-t-on?* and more frequently by eliding E or A in the article before nouns beginning by a vowel; ex.: *l'arc, l'orme.*

Note.

Too many *liaisons* as well as the tendency to pronounce consonants dropped in current usage characterize the semi-educated.

7. What French sounds seem to be generally ill-treated by English-speaking people?

a) : Most consonants which English-speaking people pronounce sharply, as if they were double, instead of pronouncing them softly, using the lips more than the teeth; *ta table* should not be pronounced *tta ttable.*

b) : AU and ô are often wrongly pronounced as if they consisted of a scale of o's whereas the French preserve to this sound its purity: *tôt* is not pronounced like *toe,* it is much nearer to *to* in *total.*

c) : EU is often wrongly pronounced like U in *but;* it should be uttered with the lips hardly opened.

d) : the N should be entirely silent in the nasal sounds AN, IN, ON, UN; these sounds, in spite of their name, are remarkably fluid and harmonious.

e) : The correct pronunciation of the French R is of vital importance and ought to be watched from the very first lesson. Except in a few provinces the French pronounce the R by vibrating the base, *not the tip,* of the tongue.(1) The consequence is that this R is really a guttural sound, rather similar to a German or a Scotch CH. In fact the French word *l'orme* can be approximated very nearly by pronouncing the word *loch* as a German or a Scotchman does, and then adding the letter M, *loch*-M. However the CH should be sounded with as little effort and as briefly as possible.

Note.

1. English-speaking people who accent French words as they do their own language, for instance, pro-

(1) A Frenchman has no trouble in rolling a succession of R's, keeping the tip of his tongue between his teeth all the time.

nouncing *la cap' itale* instead of *la ca-pi-ta-le*, produce a singing effect which does not exist in French.

2. The sentence *"Rochambeau fut heureux de lutter pour les Insurgents"* is a good test and should be practised.

GRAMMATICAL TERMS

Grammar, *la grammaire*
A rule, *une règle*
The alphabet, *l'alphabet*
A vowel, *une voyelle*
A consonant, *une consonne*
A word, *un mot*
A phrase, *une locution*
A sentence, *une phrase*
Spelling, *l'orthographe*
Etymology, *l'étymologie*
The root, *la racine*
To parse, *analyser*
Speech, *le discours*
Parts of speech, *les parties du discours*
Article, *l'article*
Noun, *le nom*
Proper, *propre*
Common, *commun*
Material, *concret*
Abstract, *abstrait*
Compound, *composé*
Gender, *le genre*
Number, *le nombre*
Singular, *singulier*
Plural, *pluriel*
Subject, *le sujet*
Direct object, *le complément direct*
Indirect object, *le complément indirect*
Adjective, *l'adjectif* (masc.)
Adjective of quality, *l'adjectif qualificatif*
Comparative, *le comparatif*
Positive, *positif*
Superlative, *superlatif*
Demonstrative, *démonstratif*
Pronoun, *le pronom*
Personal, *personnel*
Interrogative, *interrogatif*
Relative, *relatif*
Verb, *le verbe*
Conjugation, *la conjugaison*
Transitive, *transitif*
Intransitive, *intransitif*
Passive, *passif*
Auxiliary, *l'auxiliaire*
Infinitive, *l'infinitif*
Indicative, *l'indicatif*
Subjunctive, *le subjonctif*
Present, *le présent*

Imperfect, *l'imparfait*
Perfect, *le passé*
Pluperfect, *le plus-que-parfait*
Future, *le futur*
Participle, *le participe*
Adverb, *l'adverbe*
Preposition, *la préposition*
Conjunction, *la conjonction*
Exclamation, *l'interjection.*

Punctuation, *ponctuation*
, *La virgule*
; *le point virgule*
: *les deux points*
. *le point*
? *le point d'interrogation*
! *le point d'exclamation*
« » *les guillemets*
[ ] *la parenthèse*
— *le tiret*
- *le trait d'union*

ARTICLES

1. How do you translate the definite article *the?*

In English the definite article THE is used in every case, whether the noun be masculine, feminine, or neuter, singular or plural. We say *the man, the woman, the house, the houses,* without any change in the article.

In French the article varies as follows:
LE is used before masculine nouns in the singular:
ex.: *le garçon,* THE BOY;
LA is used before feminine nouns in the singular:
ex.: *la fille,* THE GIRL;
LES is used before nouns of either gender in the plural: ex.: *les garçons, les filles,* THE BOYS, THE GIRLS.

2. What is meant by the elision and by the contraction of the article?

Elision:

Before nouns beginning with a vowel or a silent H, LE and LA become L', ex.: *l'arbre* (masc.), THE TREE, *l'école* (fem.), THE SCHOOL, *l'herbe* (fem.), THE GRASS.

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masculine and neuter nouns in Latin are masculine in French while most feminine nouns in Latin are also feminine in French.

2°. In a great many cases the gender of the word can be inferred from its ending.

a) *Masculine*

1. *N*ouns in A, I, O, EAU, and U, ex.: *un bêta, un roi, un zéro, un chapeau, un neveu.*
2. *N*ouns in É, except nouns in TÉ or TIÉ, ex.: *le blé, le congé.*
3. Most nouns in AGE, ÈGE, AIRE, OIRE, ex.: *le ménage, le collège, le vestiaire, le laboratoire.*
4. Most nouns ending in consonants other than those hereafter stated to be feminine.

b) *Feminine*

1. *N*ouns in TÉ, TIÉ, ex.: *la charité, l'amitié.*
2. *N*ouns in ÉE, ex.: *la matinée.*
3. *N*ouns in SIGN and TION, ex.: *la tension, l'application.*
4. *N*ouns ending in mute E preceded by one or especially two consonants, ex.: *la gare, la bagarre.*
5. Most abstract nouns, ex.: *la gloire, la justice, la vertu.*

Note.

1. One noun denoting a man is feminine: *la sentinelle,* THE SENTRY, and the pronoun used with reference to it is ELLE.
2. GENS, people, is feminine. Ex.: *de bonnes gens,* GOOD PEOPLE, except when the adjective is placed after, ex.: *des gens maladroits,* AWKWARD PEOPLE.

4. Does the French language use the definite article *le, la, les* wherever there is *the* in English?

No, LE, LA, LES are used in many cases in which *the* is left out in English: abstract nouns, nouns relating to substances, the names of countries, the names of colors, plural nouns denoting the whole species, nouns designating titles, which in English are not preceded by *the,* take the article in French; ex.: LA *gourmandise* (GREEDINESS), LA *confiture* (JAM), LE *Connecticut* (CONNECTICUT), LE *bleu* (BLUE), LES *paresseux* (LAZY BOYS), LE *Président Wilson* (PRESIDENT WILSON).

Note.

Medieval French left out the article in practically every case in which English omits it. As proverbs are generally handed down from generation to generation in their original form it is not surprising that many French proverbs include nouns not preceded by the article. Ex.: *souvent femme varie; ils sont comme chien et chat;* (WOMAN OFTEN CHANGES; THEY ARE LIKE CAT AND DOG.)

5. How is the indefinite article *a, an* translated into French?

By UN before masculine nouns, by UNE before feminine nouns, ex.: *un couteau,* A KNIFE, *une heure,* AN HOUR.

6. What is meant by the "partitive" article?

DU, DE LA, DES, indicating a "part" of the object denoted by the following noun are called *partitive* articles: they correspond to *some* or *any* in English. but are also used in sentences too general to admit these words in English. For instance: *nous boirons*

du lait means: WE SHALL DRINK SOME MILK (on a given occasion), but it also means: WE SHALL DRINK MILK (habitually).

Note.

1. The mistake not infrequently made by English-speaking people: *nous boirons de lait,* instead of *du lait,* is caused by a confusión of genders (one thinks of the feminine partitive: *nous boirons de l'eau*).
2. However, DE instead of DU, DE LA, DES is necessary, a) after PAS, PLUS, BEAUCOUP, PEU, TROP. Ex.: *je n'ai pas de livres,* I HAVE NO BOOKS; b) before a noun preceded by an adjective. Ex.: *il y a de grandes forêts en France,* THERE ARE LARGE FORESTS IN FRANCE.

Résumé

What rules are exemplified in the following words or phrases?

The gentleman	*le* monsieur
The lady	*la* dame
The gentlemen	*les* messieurs
The ladies	*les* dames
The pupil	*l'* élève
The clock	*l'* horloge
I go to school	je vais *au* college
Send them to the swimming pools	envoyez-les *aux* piscines
The teacher's desk	le pupître *du* professeur
The college girls' badges	les insignes *des* étudiantes
The wall	*le* mur or *la* muraille
The breeze	*la* brise or *le* vent
Laziness	*la* paresse
Maple syrup	*le* jus d'érable

Canada	*le* Canada
Red	*le* rouge
Stupid people	*les* gens bêtes
Marshal Foch	*le* maréchal Foch
A pencil	*un* crayon
A slate	*une* ardoise
Pencils, slates	*des* crayons, *des* ardoises
Some pie, cakes	*de la* tarte, *des* gâteaux
Walks, too many walks	*des* promenades, trop *de* promenades
Expensive fountain-pens	*des* stylos coûteux, or *de* coûteux stylos.

II

NOUNS

1. How does the French language form the feminine of nouns?

The feminine of English nouns is formed in three different ways, a) by adding ESS to the masculine, ex.: *lion, lioness;* b) by using a word totally different in form from the masculine, ex.: *king, queen; son, daughter; bull, cow;* c) by prefixing the words WOMAN, FEMALE, SHE to the masculine, ex.: *a woman painter, a female cousin, a she-wolf.*
The French language uses forms corresponding to the first two of these three ways i.e. a) adding ESSE to the masculine, ex.: *prince, princesse;*
b) using feminine forms entirely different from the masculine, ex.: *père,* (FATHER), *mère* (MOTHER); *oncle* (UNCLE), *tante* (AUNT); *taureau* (BULL), *vache* (COW);
but apart from a few cases in which the word *femme* is used (*une femme peintre*), the French language instead of prefixing a feminine word to the masculine noun adds the letter E which in the transformation of Latin into French became distinctly the feminine ending in adjectives or present participles (see page 39).
So, we can lay down as a rule that the French language forms the feminine by adding E to the masculine; ex.: *bavard,* fem. *bavarde; commerçant,* fem. *commerçante; bourgeois,* fem. *bourgeoise.*

*N*ouns ending in E in the masc. do not change.

2. Are there no modifications of the noun beyond the addition of an e?

Yes.

a) Some nouns slightly modify the last syllable:

1. nouns ending in ER have their feminine in ÈRE. Ex.: *berger* (SHEPHERD), fem. *bergère;*

2. nouns ending in OT have their feminine in OTTE. Ex.: *linot* (LINNET), fem. *linotte.*
   Chat (CAT) shows the same modification, *chatte.*

3. nouns ending in IEN or ON have their feminine in IENNE, ONNE. Ex.: *chien* (DOG), fem. *chienne; lion,* fem. *lionne.*

b) Some nouns which in the course of time came to be modified in the masculine show their original form in the feminine:

1. nouns ending in X have their fem. in SE. Ex.: *époux* (HUSBAND), fem. *épouse,* (masc. in old French=ESPOUS);

2. nouns ending in EAU have their feminine in ELLE. Ex.: *chameau* (CAMEL), fem. *chamelle* (the English word borrowed from the French in the eleventh century shows that at that time the masculine ended in EL):

3. nouns ending in EUR have their feminine in EUSE, because the R was not sounded. Ex.: *menteur* (LIAR), fem. *menteuse.*
   However, some nouns in EUR have their feminine in ICE. Ex.: *acteur,* fem. *actrice,* and *chasseur* (HUNTER) has *chasseresse* in the feminine.

3. What changes do French nouns undergo in the plural?

In French as in English the plural is formed by adding s to the singular. Ex.: *un livre,* A BOOK; *deux livres,* TWO BOOKS.

This s is always silent.

Note.

1. Nouns ending in s, x, z, do not change in the plural. Ex.: *les bras* (THE ARMS), *les voix* (THE VOICES), *les nez* (THE NOSES).
2. Nouns endings in AL have the plural in AUX (1), ex.: *cheval* (HORSE), plural *chevaux,* except *bal* (A DANCE), *chacal* (A JACKAL) and *festival* (A MUSICAL FESTIVITY) which have their plurals in s.
3. Nouns ending in AU, EAU, EU, and OEU have their plural in x. Ex.: *joyau* (JEWEL), pl. *joyaux; bateau* (BOAT), pl. *bateaux; lieu* (PLACE), pl. *lieux; vœu* (VOW), pl. *vœux.*

   The words *bijou* (JEWEL), *caillou* (PEBBLE), *chou* (CABBAGE), *genou* (KNEE), *hibou* (OWL), *joujou* (TOY), and *pou* (LOUSE) also add x in the plural.
4. The words *bail* (LEASE), *corail* (CORAL), *émail* (ENAMEL), *soupirail* (CELLAR-WINDOW), *travail* (WORK), and *vitrail* (STAINED GLASS WINDOW) form their plural in AUX: *baux, coraux, émaux, soupiraux, travaux, vitraux.*

4. How do compound nouns form their plural?

Most compound nouns mentioned in grammars are hardly ever used in the plural; many others can be written in two ways, and the present tendency is to treat them as ordinary nouns. For instance, *réveille-matin* (ALARM-CLOCK) can be either left as it is or it can be written *réveille-matins.*

---

(1) Old French had a tendency to change L into U before consonants. Hence *cheval* in the plural was spelt *chevaus.* S became x because the shorthand of those days abbreviated US as x and scribes gradually confused x and s.

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Alsacien (Alsatian)	fem. *Alsacienne*
Patron (master)	fem. *patronne*
Malheureux (wretch)	fem. *malheureuse*
Jumeau (twin)	fem. *jumelle*
Buveur (drunkard)	fem. *buveuse*
Ambassadeur (ambassador)	fem. *ambassadrice*
une plume (a pen)	*deux plumes*
une noix (a nut)	*deux noix*
l'arsenal (the arsenal)	*les arsenaux*
le noyau (the kernel)	*les noyaux*
le rail (the rail)	*les rails*
le cerf-volant (the kite)	*les cerfs-volants*
les Bourbons (dynasty)	the Bourbons.

III

ADJECTIVES

Introductory Note—French grammars as well as English grammars treat first of ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY (*adjectifs qualificatifs*), ex.: *beau* (HANDSOME), *laid* (PLAIN), and afterwards of PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES (*adjectifs pronominaux*) corresponding to THIS, WHAT, MY, SOME, MANY, EVERY, etc.

A. ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY

1. What are the chief differences between adjectives of quality in French and in English?

Adjectives of quality in French a) are not invariable as they are in English, they are modified according to gender and number (A BIG BOY, *un grand garçon*, A BIG GIRL, *une grande fille*; BIG BOYS, *de grands garçons*); b) they never show comparison by inflexion (ER, EST) as in English, but by prefixing PLUS, LE PLUS, (more, the most); ex.: bigger, *plus grand*, the biggest, *le plus grand*; c) they are placed, even in prose, as often after the noun as before it, ex.: *une vieille maison*, an old house, *une maison neuve*, a new house.

2. How is the feminine of adjectives formed in French?

Practically as the feminine of nouns (see page 34). *General rule*: the feminine of all adjectives is ended by E, either because the masculine is already

thus ended, ex,: *aveugle,* blind, or because an E is added to denote the feminine, ex.: A BLUE BOOK, *un livre bleu;* A BLUE STUFF, *une étoffe bleue.*

The modifications stated on page 35 in the formation of the feminine of nouns are also found in the feminine of adjectives:

1. adjectives in ER have their feminine in ÈRE, ex.: *léger* (light), fem. *légère;*
2. adjectives in ET or OT have their feminine in ETTE, OTTE, ex.: *violet,* PURPLE, *violette; vieillot* (OLDISH), *vieillotte;*

However, *complet, concret, secret, discret, inquiet,* and *replet* (complete, concrete, secretive, discreet, uneasy, plump) have their feminine in ÈTE, and IDIOT (*idiotic*) and DÉVOT (*devout*) become *idiote* and *dévote* in the feminine;

3. adjectives in AN, EN, and ON have their feminine in ANNE, ENNE, and ONNE, ex.: *paysan* (PEASANT), fem. *paysanne; ancien* (OLD), *ancienne; poltron* (COWARDLY), *poltronne;*
4. adjectives in EAU have their feminine in ELLE; ex.: *beau* (HANDSOME), *belle;*
   fou (MAD) and *mou* (SOFT) also become *folle* and *molle.*

Besides these modifications common to both nouns and adjectives there are a few others peculiar to adjectives:

1. Adjectives ending in C have the feminine in CHE, except *public* (PUBLIC), fem. *publique,* and *grec* (GREEK), fem. *grecque.* Ex.: *blanc* (WHITE), fem. *blanche; sec,* (DRY), fem. *sèche. Long,* (LONG) becomes *longue.*

2. Adjectives in s have their feminine, some in SE, ex.: *niais* (STUPID), *niaise,* some in SSE, ex.: *épais* (THICK), *épaisse.*

3. The large group of adjectives in EUX have their feminine in EUSE: ex.: *peureux* (TIMID), *peureuse.*

   Adjectives in EUR also have their feminine in EUSE; ex.: *voleur* (THIEVISH), fem. *voleuse,* except *meilleur* (BETTER) and adjectives ending in ÉRIEUR, ex.: *extérieur* (EXTERIOR), which only add E, becoming *meilleure, extérieure.*

4. Adjectives ending in F change this letter into VE, ex.: *neuf* (NEW), fem. *neuve.*

5. Adjectives in EL have their feminine in ELLE and adjectives in EIL have it in EILLE: ex.: *cruel* (CRUEL), *cruelle; pareil* (SIMILAR), *pareille; vieux* (OLD), becomes *vieille.*

6. *Favori* becomes in the feminine *favorite* and *hébreu* (HEBREW) *hébraïque; grand* stays unchanged, although feminine, in the compound nouns *grand'mère* (GRANDMOTHER), *grand'messe* (HIGH MASS), *grand'rue* (HIGH STREET), and *grand'route* (HIGHWAY).

Note.

Most adjectives end in E or EUX and form their feminine in the simplest manner, so that the complication is more an appearance than an actuality.

3. How does French form the plural of adjectives?

a) Feminine adjectives all ending in E naturally form their plural in s and consequently offer no difficulty, ex.: *une brume épaisse* (A THICK FOG), *des brumes épaisses.*

b) Masculine adjectives as a general rule also have their plural in s, ex.: *un garçon agile* (A NIMBLE BOY), *des garçons agiles.*

However:

1. adjectives ending in s or x do not change in the plural masculine, ex.: *deux gros chiens* (TWO LARGE DOGS); *les paresseux* (LAZY BOYS);
2. adjectives in AL have their plural in AUX, except *frugal* (FRUGAL) and *naval* (NAVAL), ex.: *un homme brutal* (A BRUTAL MAN), *des hommes brutaux* (BRUTAL MEN);
3. *beau* and *nouveau* become *beaux* and *nouveaux;* TOUT becomes *tous* (in the masc.,), ex.: *tout le collège,* ALL THE SCHOOL; *tous les élèves,* ALL THE BOYS; *toutes les élèves,* ALL THE GIRLS.

4. Can the adjective be used as a noun in French?

Yes, and even more naturally than in English, for in English it has to be accompanied by a noun—at any rate in the singular—whereas in French it does not require any such addition, ex.: *un Américain,* AN AMERICAN MAN; *une Américaine,* AN AMERICAN WOMAN; *des Américains,* AMERICAN PEOPLE; *un petit Américain,* AN AMERICAN BOY; *une petite Américaine,* AN AMERICAN GIRL; *un aveugle,* A BLIND MAN; *une aveugle,* A BLIND WOMAN; *les aveugles,* THE BLIND; *le plus riche,* THE RICHER ONE; *les plus vieux,* THE OLDEST ONES.

5. Where do you place the adjective of quality?

Generally after the noun, ex.: *une promenade ravissante,* A LOVELY WALK; *une grammaire fran-*

çaise, A FRENCH GRAMMAR; *une fille intelligente,* AN INTELLIGENT GIRL.

Note.

1. The result which poets or prose writers aiming at a poetic effect obtain in English by placing the adjective *after* the noun is obtained in French by placing it *before* the noun. But the noun ought to be of more than one syllable unless the adjective ends in E or ES, ex.: *un resplendissant horizon,* A GLOWING HORIZON; *la vaste mer,* THE WIDE OCEAN.

2. The modern tendency to exaggerate, and to a certain degree the diffusion of the English language among French people, encourage the habit of emphasizing the adjective by placing it before the noun, even in conversation: nobody ever says *une française grammaire* because the adjective would not bear any stressing, but *une ravissante promenade, une très intelligente fille,* are unfortunately often heard.

3. A certain number of adjectives in daily use are always placed before the noun. No reason can be given for this usage: it is impossible, for instance, to know why we should say *une lourde malle* (adj. before), A HEAVY TRUNK, while we say *une malle légère,* A LIGHT TRUNK; *une vieille maison,* AN OLD HOUSE, and *une maison neuve,* A NEW HOUSE, but the ear soon grows accustomed to these peculiarities.

The chief adjectives to be placed *before* the noun are the following, the same usage generally applying to their antonyms or opposites:

ANCIEN, ex.: *un ancien soldat,* AN OLD SOLDIER;

BEAU, ant. LAID OR VILAIN, ex.: *un beau tableau, un laid visage, une vilaine physionomie,* A FINE PICTURE, AN UGLY FACE, AN UGLY PHYSIOGNOMY;

BON OR BRAVE, ant. MAUVAIS OR MÉCHANT, ex.: *un bon devoir, un mauvais devoir,* A GOOD EXERCISE, A POOR EXERCISE; *un bon garçon* or *un brave garçon, un méchant homme,* A GOOD FELLOW, A BAD MAN;

GRAND or GROS and ant. PETIT, ex.: *une grande maison, une grosse mouche, un petit oiseau,* A LARGE HOUSE, A BIG FLY, A LITTLE BIRD;

HAUT, ex.: *une haute tour,* A HIGH TOWER;

JEUNE and ant. VIEUX: ex.: *un jeune professeur, une vieille histoire,* A YOUNG PROFESSOR, AN OLD STORY;

LONG and ant. COURT, ex.: *un long discours, un court récit,* A LONG SPEECH, A SHORT ACCOUNT;

LOURD, ex.: *un lourd paquet,* A HEAVY PARCEL;

RICHE and ant. PAUVRE, ex.: *un riche banquier, un pauvre commis,* A RICH BANKER, A POOR CLERK;

VRAI and ant. FAUX, ex.: *un vrai gentilhomme, une fausse comtesse,* A REAL ARISTOCRAT, A SHAM COUNTESS.

6. How do you form the comparative degree in French?

a) Equality is denoted by AUSSI.... QUE (as.:... as), ex.: *je suis aussi grand que lui* (*est*), I AM AS TALL AS HE IS. So... THAT is translated by SI... QUE, ex.: SO HIGH THAT I CAN NOT REACH IT, *si haut que je ne peux y atteindre.*

b) Superiority is denoted by PLUS... QUE (more... than), ex.: *il est plus vieux que moi,* he is older than I am.

Note.

MORE THAN followed by a number is translated by PLUS DE and not PLUS QUE, ex.: MORE THAN TEN TIMES, *plus de dix fois.*

e) Inferiority is denoted by MOINS... QUE (less... than), ex.: *elle est moins charmante que sa sœur,* SHE IS LESS CHARMING THAN HER SISTER.

7. How is the superlative formed in French?

By prefixing LE PLUS, (masc.) LA PLUS, (fem.) LES PLUS, (plur.) to the adjective, ex.: *le match le plus intéressant, la partie la plus captivante,* THE MOST INTERESTING MATCH, THE MOST EXCITING GAME; *les chevaux les plus sauvages,* THE WILDEST HORSES.

Note.

Both MUCH and VERY are translated by TRÈS, ex.: VERY BEAUTIFUL. MUCH ADMIRED. *très beau. très admiré.*

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B. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

The adjectives thus called are, 1. possessive, 2. demonstrative, 3. interrogative, 4. indefinite, 5. numeral.

I. POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

1. What are the possessive adjectives in French?

	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Plur.*
My	mon	ma	mes
Thy	ton	ta	tes
His / *Her* / *Its* / *One's*	son	sa	ses
Our	notre	notre	nos
Your	votre	votre	vos
Their	leur	leur	leurs.

Note.

1. For the sake of euphony MON, TON, SON, though exclusively masc., are placed before nouns, even though feminine, beginning with a vowel or a mute H; ex.: MY SOUL, *mon âme*, YOUR STORY, *ton histoire*, not *ma âme, ta histoire.*

2. TON, TA, TES are constantly heard in friendly conversation (*tutoiement*); this is a habit of the language and not a special idiom as with Quakers.

3. ONE'S does not exist in French and it is a great shortcoming: TO LOSE ONE'S MONEY and HE HAS LOST HIS MONEY are both translated by: *perdre son argent; il a perdu son argent.*

4. MON, MA, MES are frequently used where MY is dropped in addressing people; ex.: THANK YOU, UNCLE, *merci, mon oncle;* YES, SISTER, *oui, ma sœur;* DEAR FRIENDS, *mes chers amis.*

2. What is the agreement of *son, sa?*

SON, SA, agree in gender and number with the noun following, whereas in English the possessor always governs and not the object possessed; so HE SOLD HIS HOUSE and SHE SOLD HER HOUSE are translated *il vendit sa maison, elle vendit sa maison;* *son fils* (HIS or HER SON) can be said equally well of a father or a mother.

II. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

1. What are the demonstrative adjectives?

The demonstrative adjectives, so called because they point out some object and are generally accompanied by a gesture, are CE.....CI corresponding to THIS, CE.....LÀ corresponding to THAT, and CE.....LÀ-BAS, corresponding to YONDER; ex.: THIS LITTLE BOOK, *ce petit livre-ci;* THAT BIG DICTIONARY, *ce gros dictionnaire-là;* YONDER STEEPLE, *ce clocher là-bas,* or *ce clocher-là là-bas.*

Note.

1. CI is a contraction of ICI;
2. CE...CI, CE...LA, spelt CECI and CELA, correspond to the pronouns THIS, THAT; ex.: REMEMBER THIS, *rappelez vous ceci;* WRITE THAT DOWN, *notez cela;*
3. CI and LA are left out when the meaning is clear: *ce livre, ce clocher.*

2. What modifications do the demonstrative adjectives undergo?

CE, masc., becomes CET before a vowel or a mute H; ex.: THIS ATLAS, *cet atlas,* THAT MAN, *cet homme:* CETTE is the feminine of CE and CET; ex.: THAT OLD FENCE, *cette vieille barrière;*

CES is the plural both masc. and fem.; ex.: THOSE HORSES AND COWS, *ces chevaux* (masc.) *et ces vaches* (fem).

III. INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES

What are the interrogative adjectives?

In English there are two interrogative adjectives, WHAT and WHICH (more definite than WHAT). WHICH? has no equivalent in French and it is a pity. WHAT? is translated by

Sing. QUEL (masc.), QUELLE (fem.)
Plur. QUELS (masc.), QUELLES (fem.).

EX.: WHAT BOOK, WHAT BOOKS DO YOU READ? *quel livre, quels livres lisez-vous?* WHAT SCHOOL, WHAT SCHOOLS DO YOU MEAN? *de quelle école, de quelles écoles parlez-vous?*

Note.

QUEL is also exclamative; ex.: WHAT A MAN! *quel homme!* WHAT SOLDIERS! *quels soldats!*

IV. INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES

They are:

aucun, no
autre, other
chaque, every, each
même, same
maint, many a
plusieurs, several
certain, certain, some
divers, sundry
quelconque, whatever
quelque, some, a few
quel que, whatever
tel, such
tout, all, the whole.

Note.

PLUSIEURS does not mean *many*, but *several* or *a few*, ex.: *plusieurs garçons sont sortis des limites,* SEVERAL BOYS, OR A FEW BOYS, BROKE BOUNDS.

V. NUMERALS

1. What are the cardinal numerals?

1	un, une	17	dix-sept
2	deux	18	dix-huit
3	trois	19	dix-neuf
4	quatre	20	vingt
5	cinq	21	vingt-et-un
6	six	30	trente
7	sept	40	quarante
8	huit	50	cinquante
9	neuf	60	soixante
10	dix	70	soixante-dix
11	onze	80	quatre-vingts
12	douze	90	quatre-vingt-dix
13	treize	100	cent (not *un* cent)
14	quatorze	1000	mille (not *un* mille)
15	quinze		a million, un million
16	seize		a billion, un milliard.

2. What is to be noticed in the formation of cardinal numerals?

a) From UN up to SEIZE they are mere contractions of the latin numerals.

b) Dix-sept, dix-huit, dix-neuf consist of DIX (ten) to which SEPT, HUIT, NEUF are added.

c) 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71 insert ET between the two numbers: *vingt-et un, trente-et un, quarante-et-un, cinquante-et-un, soixante-et-un, soixante-et-onze;* the other numbers are formed as in English: TWENTY-TWO, *vingt-deux;* SIXTY-NINE, *soixante-neuf;* EIGHTY-FIVE, *quatre vingt-cinq;*

d) VINGT, CENT take an s only when preceded by another number; ex.: *quatre-vingts* (80), *trois*

cents (300), but when they are also followed by another number they are invariable; ex.: *quatre-vingt-neuf* (89), *trois cent quatre* (304);

c) CENT and MILLE are not followed by ET; ex.: *cent deux*, A HUNDRED AND TWO; *mille dix-sept*, ONE THOUSAND AND SEVENTEEN;

f) the final consonants in DEUX, TROIS, CINQ, SIX, SEPT, HUIT, NEUF, DIX, VINGT, are not sounded before another consonant, but are sounded before a vowel or a mute H; ex.: *trois heures trois minutes* (three minutes past three) is pronounced *troiz-heures troi-minutes*;

g) HUIT JOURS simply means a week, and QUINZE JOURS a fortnight.

3. How do you form ordinal numerals?

By adding TÈME (corresponding to the Latin IMUS) to the cardinal form; ex.: *trois-ième*, THIRD.

1st premier	17th dix-septième
2nd deuxième	18th dix-huitième
3rd troisième	19th dix-neuvième
4th quatrième	20th vingtième
5th cinquième	21st vingt-et-unième
6th sixième	22nd vingt-deuxième
7th septième	30th trentième
8th huitième	31st trente-et-unième
9th neuvième	40th quarantième
10th dixième	50th cinquantième
11th onzième	60th soixantième
12th douzième	70th soixante-dixième
13th treizième	80th quatre-vingtième
14th quatorzième	90th quatre-vingt-dixième
15th quinzième	100th centième
16th seizième	1000th millième.

Note.

Fractions are indicated in French as in English by the ordinal number, with these exceptions:
HALF is translated by *moitié* or *demi.*
THIRD " " *le tiers*
FOURTH " " *le quart.*

4. Does the French language use an ordinal number in all cases in which English uses it?

No, the French language uses the cardinal number instead of the ordinal;

a) in speaking of days of the month except the first; ex.: NOVEMBER FOURTH, *le quatre novembre;*

b) in giving the order of succession of kings, except the first; ex.: LOUIS THE FOURTEENTH, *Louis Quatorze;* GEORGE THE THIRD LOST AMERICA, *Georges Trois perdit l'Amérique;*

c) in speaking of the books and chapters of a literary work, except the first, ex.: BOOK THE SECOND, *livre deux;* CHAPTER THE TENTH, *chapitre dix.*

5. How do the French express the time?

The time between the half hour and the hour is read as follows:
IT IS TWENTY FIVE MINUTES TO SIX, *il est six heures moins vingt-cinq* (observe that O'CLOCK is left out in English and MINUTES in French). IT IS A QUARTER TO TWELVE (noon), *il est midi moins le quart,* or *moins un quart.*
The time between the hour and the half is read as follows:
IT IS TEN PAST NINE, *il est neuf heures dix.*
IT IS A QUARTER PAST TWELVE (midnight), *il est minuit et quart.*

IT IS HALF PAST ONE, *il est une heure et demie.*

Idioms.—IT HAS JUST STRUCK ONE, *une heure vient de sonner.* AT WHAT TIME? *à quelle heure?*

AT TWO SHARP, ON THE STROKE OF TWO, *sur le coup de deux heures, à deux heures sonnant, à deux heures juste.*

How old are you? *Quel âge avez-vous?*

I am seventeen, *J'ai dix-sept ans.*

Résumé

What rules are exemplified in the following phrases or words?

Your cousin is cheerful,	Votre cousine est *gaie.*
Her expression is never severe,	Son expression n'est jamais *sévère.*
Your daughter is mute,	Votre fille est *muette.*
A truly Christian woman,	Une vraie *chrétienne.*
The magpie is both timid and thievish,	La pie est *peureuse et voleuse.*
Disobedient boys are often punished,	Les élèves *indociles sont* souvent *punis.*
My friendly rebukes,	Mes reproches *amicaux.*
All the trees and all the flowers.	*Tous* les arbres et *toutes* les fleurs.
You fat, lazy fellow!	Gros *paresseux!*
You little braggart (fem.)!	Petite *vantarde!*
The white mare and the gray one,	La jument blanche et *la grise.*
Two white houses,	Deux maisons *blanches.*
White wreaths,	De *blanches* guirlandes.

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She lost her husband and her sister,	Elle perdit *son* mari et *sa sœur*.
He lost his wife and his son,	Il perdit *sa* femme et *son* fils.
This baby, this angel,	*Ce* bébé, *cet* ange.
This splendid man, this hero,	*Cet* homme admirable, *ce* héros.
This good woman,	*Cette* femme de bien.
What monk appears in "Romeo and Juliet"?	*Quel* moine paraît dans *Roméo et Juliette?*
"What nun appears in "Measure for Measure"?	*Quelle* religieuse paraît dans *Mesure pour Mesure?*
What a charming part!	*Quel* rôle charmant!
Two hundred or two hundred and fifty men,	Deux *cents* à deux *cent* cinquante hommes.
Eighty men and eighty-two women,	Quatre-*vingts* hommes et quatre - *vingt* - *deux* femmes.
The Tenth chapter of the History of James the Second,	Le chapitre *dix* de l'histoire de Jacques *Deux*.

IV

PRONOUNS

This chapter will deal with:

A.	Personal Pronouns	(*pronoms personnels*)
B.	Reflexive "	(*pronoms réfléchis*)
C.	Possessive "	(*pronoms possessifs*)
D.	Demonstrative "	(*pronoms démonstratifs*)
E.	Relative "	(*pronoms relatifs*)
F.	Interrogative "	(*pronoms interrogatifs*)
G.	Indefinite "	(*pronoms indéfinis*)

A. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. Give a list of the personal pronouns in the nominative?

Je	I
Tu	Thou
Il	He, it
Elle	She, it
Nous	We
Vous	You
Ils, *Elles*	They

Note.

1. These pronouns correspond exactly to the English pronouns. It should however be noticed that, while the French language, having no neuter nouns, has no equivalent for IT, there are two French forms translating THEY;
2. The inversion of the pronoun, ex.: SAID HE, *dit-il*, CRIED THEY, *s'écrièrent-ils*, is not only possible as in English, but is in constant use;
3. *Tu*, THOU, is in constant use in friendly conversation.

2. Give a list of the same pronouns in the accusative?

Me	Me
Te	Thee
Le	Him, it
La	Her, it
Nous	Us
Vous	You
Les	Them

Note.

1. These pronouns are always placed before the verb and not after, as in modern English, (old English: till death us do part); ex.: I hear you, *je vous entends* (I you hear); I shall give it to you, *je vous le donnerai* (I you it shall give); however, the pronoun follows the imperative, as in English; ex.: call him early, *appelez-le de bonne heure.*
2. Le often represents a whole proposition, and plays the part of so; ex.: if you can come early, do so, *si vous pouvez venir tôt, faites-le.*

3. Are there any other French personal pronouns?

The two lists above correspond to what English grammarians call *conjunctive* personal pronouns, because they are intimately joined to the verb. Besides these there are others called *disjunctive*, because they are separated from the verb. (1)
They are:

Moi	I, me, to me
Toi	Thou, thee, to thee
Lui	He, him, to him, to her
Elle	She, her
Nous	We, us, to us
Vous	You, to you
Eux, *Elles*	They, them, to them

(1) French grammarians call the conjunctive pronouns ATONES (unstressed) because they are pronounced as if they were a part of the verb, and the disjunctive pronouns TONIQUES (emphasized) because they are pronounced more clearly.

These pronouns have no equivalent in English and consequently ought to be examined more closely than the others.

They are used a) exclamatively; ex.: I! DO SUCH A THING! *moi! faire une telle chose!* — b) in elliptical sentences answering a question; ex.: WHO HAS JUST RUNG THE BELL? — I, HE, THEY (did). *Qui vient de sonner? moi, lui, eux;*— c) as genitives (OF) or datives (TO) and generally after prepositions (POUR, for, AVEC, with, SANS, without, etc.). Ex.: WE WERE SPEAKING OF THEM, *nous parlions d'eux;* COME WITH ME, *venez avec moi.*

Note.

1. The emphasis of the pronoun is marked in French by its repetition, ex.: *I* SAID NO, *moi, j'ai dit non; we* DID NOT RUN AWAY, *nous, nous ne nous sommes pas enfuis.*
2. When there are two subjects, one of which is a pronoun, the pronoun is also repeated; ex.: YOUR SISTER AND WE SHALL WAIT HERE, *votre sœur et nous, nous attendrons ici.*

4. What is the exact meaning and use of *lui?*

LUI in the nominative and the accusative refers only to masc. nouns; ex.: *Lui! reculer! jamais!* HE! FALL BACK! NEVER! *avec lui,* WITH HIM; but, in the dative, it refers to both genders: *je lui écris* means indifferently I AM WRITING { TO HIM. / TO HER.

It is a serious mistake to confuse LUI and LE, LA. to say, for instance, *je lui vois* instead of *je le vois,* I SEE HIM, or *je la parle* instead of *je lui parle,* I SPEAK TO HER.

Note.

After the two verbs *entendre*, TO HEAR, and *voir*, TO SEE. LUI is frequently used instead of LE, LA, but in this case the object following *entendre* or *voir* is always found to be accompanied by an adjective indicating admiration or contempt; ex.: *je lui ai vu faire des exploits extraordinaires*, I SAW HIM PERFORM WONDERFUL FEATS; *je lui ai entendu dire des choses absurdes*, I HEARD HIM SAY ABSURD THINGS.

5. What is the meaning and use of *leur?*

LEUR is a) a possessive adjective meaning THEIR; ex.: *leur livre, leurs livres*, THEIR BOOK, THEIR BOOKS; b) a dative of the personal pronoun *ils*, THEY; ex.: *parlez leur*, SPEAK TO THEM.

6. What is the meaning and use of *en?*

EN (Latin INDE, thence) still preserves its use as an adverb; ex.: *j'en viens*, I COME FROM THERE; but it is more frequently used as a pronoun corresponding to OF IT, ABOUT IT; ex.: *nous en reparlerons*, WE SHALL SPEAK OF IT AGAIN;
it is also very frequently used as a partitive corresponding to SOME, ANY; ex.: HAVE YOU ANY (tobacco)? — YES, I HAVE SOME LEFT, *en avez-vous? oui, il m'en reste;*
the habit of using EN in this connexion has gradually been extended to many sentences which in English do not include SOME OF ANY; ex.: WE HAVE NOT ANY (dictionary)—BUY ONE; *nous n'en avons pas—achetez-en un.*

7. What is the meaning and use of *y?*

Y (Latin IBI, there) has also an adverbial use; ex.: *j'y habite*, I LIVE THERE; *j'y vais*, I AM GOING THERE, and a pronominal use; ex.: *j'y pensais*, I WAS THINKING OF IT.

B. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

1. What are the reflexive pronouns in French?

They are:

me		myself
te		thyself, yourself
se	himself	
	herself	
	itself	
	one's self	
nous		ourselves
vous		yourselves
se		themselves

Ex.: *je me brosse*, I BRUSH MYSELF; *elle se lave*, SHE WASHES HERSELF; *se blâmer c'est se corriger*, TO BLAME ONE'S SELF IS TO IMPROVE ONE'S SELF.

Note.

1. These pronouns are exactly the same as the personal pronouns in the accusative with the exception of SE (Latin SE or SESE).
2. Being objects they are placed before the verb.

2. What is the meaning and use of *moi-même, toi-même, lui-même*, etc.?

Moi-même	myself
Toi-même	thyself, yourself
Lui-même	himself, itself
Elle-même	herself, itself
Soi-même	one's self
Nous-mêmes	ourselves
Vous-mêmes	yourselves
Eux-mêmes	themselves
Elles-mêmes	themselves

a) These differ entirely from the reflexive pronouns inasmuch as they are never used as objects except directly and after prepositions like À, DE, POUR, CONTRE, etc., in which case MÊME, MÊMES is frequently omitted; ex.: I WORK FOR MYSELF, *je travaille pour moi-même* or *pour moi;* THEY THINK ONLY OF THEMSELVES, *ils ne pensent qu'à eux-mêmes,* or *à eux;* TO THINK OF ONE'S SELF, *penser à soi (-même);*

b) they are frequently used as subjects in apposition, 1. in cases in which they correspond to MYSELF, THYSELF, etc.; ex.: I SHALL WRITE THIS MYSELF, *j'écrirai ceci moi-même;* 2. in cases in which they correspond to I MYSELF, HE HIMSELF, etc., or to EVEN I, EVEN HE, etc.; ex.: *moi-même j'eus peur,* EVEN I WAS FRIGHTENED, or I MYSELF WAS FRIGHTENED.

The meaning would be the same if one should say: *même moi, j'eus peur.*

C. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

1. What are the possessive pronouns that refer to only one person?

They are:

IN ENGLISH:	IN FRENCH:
mine	*le mien, la mienne* (sing.) *les miens, les miennes* (pl.)
thine	*le tien, la tienne* (sing.) *les tiens, les tiennes* (pl.)
his, hers, its own, one's	*le sien, la sienne* (sing.) *les siens, les siennes* (pl.)

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IT IS NOT MINE, I THINK IT IS TOM'S; *à qui est cette balle? ce n'est pas à moi, je crois que c'est à Tom.*

Note.

In the plural, speaking of stamps, for instance, we should say: *ils sont à Tom,* rather than *c'est à Tom.*

4. What is the meaning of *celui de, celle de,* etc.?

These possessives correspond to both THAT OF, THOSE OF, and to the possessive case; ex.: IT IS TOM'S (or IT IS THAT OF TOM) is translated by *c'est celui* or *c'est celle de Tom.*

D. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

1. What is the meaning and use of *celui-ci, celui-là?*

	Sing.	*Celui-ci* (masc),	*celle-ci*	(fem.)
	Pl.	*Ceux-ci* (masc),	*celles-ci*	(fem.)
and	Sing.	*Celui-là* (masc),	*celle-là*	(fem.)
	Pl.	*Ceux-là* (masc),	*celles-là*	(fem.)

These demonstratives correspond to THIS, THAT, THOSE (speaking of things) and to THIS ONE, THAT ONE, or to THE FORMER, THE LATTER, (speaking of people); ex.: (speaking of pens) I PREFER THESE, *j'aime mieux celles-ci;* (speaking of soldiers) I KNOW THAT ONE, *je connais celui-là;* (speaking of Grant and Lee) THE FORMER WAS A GREAT SOLDIER, THE LATTER A DEEP STRATEGIST, *celui-là fut un grand soldat, celui-ci un profond stratège.*

2. What is the meaning and use of *celui qui, celle qui,* etc.?

Sing. C*elui qui* (masc.) *celle qui* (fem.)
Pl. C*eux qui* (masc.) *celles qui* (fem.)

are said both of persons and things and correspond to HE WHO, THAT WHICH, and THE ONE WHO, THE ONE WHICH; ex.: (speaking generally) HE WHO RUNS CAN READ, *celui qui court peut lire;* (speaking of certain persons in particular) I KNOW THE ONES WHO STAND THERE, *je connais ceux qui sont là debout;* WHO IS THE ONE WHO IS RUNNING? *qui est celui qui court?*

Note.

CELUI QUI is abbreviated as QUI in proverbial sentences, ex.: *qui dort dîne,* he who sleeps needs no dinner.

3. What is the meaning of *ceci, cela?*

These demonstratives, abbreviated from CELUI-CI, CELUI-LÀ, correspond to THIS, THAT; ex.: REMEMBER THIS, *rappelez-vous ceci;* NEVER SAY A WORD OF THAT, *ne dites mot de cela.*

Note.

ÇA is a colloquial contraction of CELA; ex.: TELL US THAT, *dites-nous çà.*

4. What is the meaning and use of *ce?*

CE or c' (before vowels) corresponds to IT; ex.: IT IS NOT TRUE, *ce n'est pas vrai;* IT IS HIS WIT, (IT IS) NOT HIS IDEAS THAT I ENJOY IN SHAW, *c'est son esprit, ce ne sont pas ses idées que j'aime chez Shaw.*

Note.

1. CE is replaced by IL when *que* or *de* follows; ex.: *il est vrai que*: IT IS TRUE THAT;
2. C'EST is used where English has HE IS, SHE IS, referring to a person already mentioned; ex.: WHO IS THIS GIRL? SHE IS A FRENCH GIRL; *qui est cette jeune fille? c'est une française.*
3. SUR CE means SUR CELA, upon this, whereupon; ex.: WHEREUPON HE SAID GOOD-BYE: *sur ce il fit ses adieux.*

5. What is the meaning and use of *ce qui, ce que?*

CE QUI, CE QUE correspond to both WHAT and WHICH; ex.: DO NOT BELIEVE WHAT HE SAYS, *ne croyez pas ce qu'il dit;* YOU BELIEVE EVERYBODY, WHICH IS AN EXCESS, *vous croyez tout le monde, ce qui est exagéré.*

E. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The relative pronouns in English are:

N.	who	which
G.	whose	of which
D.	to whom	to which
A.	whom	which

1. What are the relative pronouns in French?

There are two sets of relative pronouns in French.

a) Nom. *qui,* who, which.
Gen. *de qui,* whose, of whom, of which.
Dat. *à qui,* to whom, to which.
Acc *que* (with a verb) } whom, which.
qui (with a preposit.) }

This set is used in the plural as well as in the singular. Ex.: THE DOCTOR WHO LOOKED AFTER MF, *le médecin qui me soignait;* A PLAY WHICH DE-

LIGHTED ME, *une pièce qui m'a ravi;* THE SINGERS WHOM WE HEARD, *les chanteurs que nous entendions;* THE TEACHER WITH WHOM I STUDIED, *le maître avec qui j'ai travaillé.*

Note.

DE QUI is frequently replaced by DONT, corresponding to *whose* but followed by the article; ex.: AN ATHLETE WHOSE POWERFUL BODY, *un athlète dont le corps robuste...*

SINGULAR:

b) N. *lequel* (masc.), *laquelle* (fem.) who, which
G. *duquel* (masc.), *de laquelle* (fem.) {of whom / of which}
D. auquel (masc.), *à laquelle* (fem.) {to whom / to which}
A. *lequel* (masc.), *laquelle* (fem.) whom, which

PLURAL:

N. *les quels* (masc.), *les quelles* (fem.) who, which
G. *des quels* (masc.) *des quelles* (fem.) {of whom / of which}
D. *aux quels* (masc.) *aux quelles* (fem.) {to whom / to which}
A. *les quels* (masc.) *les quelles* (fem.) whom, which
Ex.: *le dîner auquel je fais allusion,* THE DINNER TO WHICH I AM REFERRING; *la voiture dans laquelle nous sommes venus,* THE CARRIAGE IN WHICH WE DROVE HERE.

Note.

LEQUEL, LESQUELS is hardly used except in the genitive, the dative (*le dîner auquel*), and the accusative after a preposition (*la voiture dans laquelle*,) but it should always be used in these cases when referring to animals or things.

2. Decline the relative pronouns as their usage can be inferred from the two declensions above.

SINGULAR:

Nom. *Qui* (persons and things)
Gen. *Dont, de qui* (persons); *dont, duquel* (things)
Dat. *A qui, auquel* (persons); *auquel,* (things)
Acc. *Que* (persons and things) with a verb.
Qui (persons); *lequel, laquelle* (things) with a preposition.

PLURAL:

Nom. *Qui* (persons and things)
Gen. *De qui, dont* (persons and things); *dont, desquels* (things).
Dat. *A qui, auxquels* (pers. and things); *auxquels* (things).
Acc. *Que* (pers. and things) with verb.
Qui (persons); *les quels* (things) with a preposition.

Note.

After CE and RIEN, the relative is QUOI; ex.: WHAT I WAS THINKING OF, *ce à quoi je pensais;* THERE WAS NOTHING I COULD MAKE A FIRE WITH, *il n'y avait rien avec quoi je pouvais faire du feu.*

F. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

1. What interrogative pronouns are used in speaking of persons?

Nom. *Qui?* who?
Gen. *De qui?* of whom?
Dat. *A qui?* to whom?
Acc. *Qui?* whom?

Ex.: *Qui est là?* WHO IS THERE? *à qui écrivez-vous?* TO WHOM ARE YOU WRITING? *qui sonnez vous?* WHOM ARE YOU RINGING UP?

Note.

Instead of QUI in the nom. colloquial French often uses QUI EST-CE QUI? ex.: *qui est-ce qui vous appelle?* WHO CALLS YOU?

2. What are the interrogative pronouns in other cases?

Nom. *Quoi? que? qu'est-ce qui?* what?
Gen. *De quoi?* of what?
Dat. *À quoi?* to what?
Acc. *Que? qu'est ce que?* what?

Ex.: WHAT? WHAT ARE YOU SAYING? *quoi? que dites-vous?* or *qu'est-ce que vous dites?* WHAT DO YOU WANT? *que voulez-vous* or *qu'est-ce que vous voulez?* WHAT HAS HAPPENED TO YOU? *que vous est-il arrivé?*

3. What is to be noticed about the translation of *what* in the nominative?

WHAT? by itself is translated by QUOI?, Followed by a preposition it is translated by QUE? or by *qu'est-ce qui?* Ex.: WHAT? WHAT IS HAPPENING? *quoi? qu' (que) arrive-t-il?* or *qu'est-ce qui arrive?*

4. Is it possible to translate *which*? accurately into French?

WHICH? by itself is translated by LEQUEL? LESQUELS; ex.: (speaking of horses) WHICH WILL YOU RIDE? *lequel voulez-vous monter?*
Followed by a noun it can only be translated by a circumlocution: WHICH MARE? *laquelle (des deux juments?)*

G. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

1. What are the indefinite pronouns in French?

They are:

on, one
quelqu'un, somebody
personne, nobody
quelque chose, something
rien, nothing
aucun, nul, no
un, one
chacun, every, each
plusieurs, several, some
certains, certain, some
tel, such
tout, all, the whole
quiconque, whoever
quoi que, whatever
autre, other

2. Which indefinite pronoun is the most frequently used in French?

It is ON (Lat. *homo,* man) which corresponds not only to ONE, (ex.: ONE OFTEN THINKS, *on croit souvent*) but also corresponds to:

a) A MAN, WE, PEOPLE, IT IS (said, related, etc.); ex.: WE or PEOPLE SAY WRONGLY, *on dit à tort;*

b) SOMEBODY, THEY; ex.: SOMEBODY IS KNOCKING, *on frappe;* THEY WORK IN THE CAPITOL, *on travaille au Capitole;*

c) YOU; ex.: YOU START FROM PENNSYLVANIA STATION, *on part de la gare de Pensylvanie;*

d) passive constructions; ex.: BOYS ARE SUPPOSED TO NOTICE NOTHING, *on imagine que les garçons ne remarquent rien.*

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Résumé

What rules are exemplified in the following?

PERSONAL PRONOUNS:

Ils chantent,	They sing.
Elles chantent,	
Tu parles trop,	You speak too much.
"Bien!" *dira-t-il,*	"Right!" he will say.
Maman *nous* appelle,	Mother calls us.
Je *te le* rappellerai,	I shall remind you of it.
Si vous pouvez m'aider	If you can help me
faites *le*	do so, do it.
pensez-*y*	think of it.
souvenez-vous *en*	remember it.
Toi! tu es un brave!	YOU are a brave man!
"Qui viendra avec *moi?*"—	Who is coming with me?
"Moi",	—I am.
Charles et *toi,* vous resterez	You and Charles will stay.
Lui est un sot,	HE is a fool.
Je *lui* ai dit que j'irais avec *lui,*	I told him I would go with him.
Je *lui* ai dit que j'irais avec *elle,*	I told her I would go with her.
Qui *leur* a pris *leur* chien?	Who stole their dog from them?
J'*y* réfléchirai et vous *en* écrirai.	I will think it over and write you about it.
Du bon sens! Il *n'en* a pas!	Sense! He has none!

Boston! *J'en* arrive! *J'y* étais il y a six heures!	Boston! I have just arrived from there! I was there six hours ago.
REFLEXIVE:	
Va *te* brosser,	Go and brush yourself.
Elle *se* brosse,	She is brushing herself.
Il est temps de *se* brosser,	Now is the time to brush one's self.
Fais cela *toi-même,*	Do that yourself.
Tu travailles pour t*oi,*	You work for yourself.
Ta mère *elle-même* le sait,	Even your mother knows it.
POSSESSIVE:	
Il a fini *le sien* (devoir),	He has finished his (task).
Elle a fini *le sien* (devoir),	She has finished hers (task).
Avez-vous fini *les vôtres?* (devoirs),	Have you finished yours? (tasks).
La salle de bains sera à *vous,* l'armoire *à moi,*	The bath room will be yours, the closet mine.
*N'*était elle pas *à* Louise?	Was it not Louise's?
Non, *celle de* Louise est dans l'autre chambre,	No, Louise's is in the other room.
DEMONSTRATIVE:	
Essayez *celui-ci* (rasoir),	Try this one (razor).
C*elui-ci* (Jackson) était démocrate, *celui-là* (Hamilton) fédéraliste,	The latter (Jackson) was a Democrat, the former (Hamilton) a Federalist.

C*eux qui* arriveront en retard seront punis,	Those who come late will be punished.
C*elui que* je vois dans le gymnase,	The one I see over there in the gymnasium.
Qui m'aime me suive,	(Let him) who loves me follow me.
Montrez moi *cela,*	Let me see that.
Regardez (moi) *çà!*	Just look at that!
Ce qu'il aime *ce sont* ses aises,	What he loves is his own comfort.
Qui était Rachel? *C'était* une actrice célèbre,	Who was Rachel? She was a famous actress.
Il ne dit que *ce qu'il* veut dire.	He only says what he wants to say.

RELATIVE:

Le Français avec *qui* je correspondais,	The Frenchman with whom I used to correspond.
La plume avec *laquelle* j'écrivais,	The pen with which I used to write.
Les lettres *que je* gardais,	The letters I used to keep.
Les choses *dont* nous parlions,	The subjects about which we used to talk.
C*e sur quoi* je vous consulte,	What I want your advice about.

INTERROGATIVE:

Qui va là? *Qui* cherchez-vous?	Who goes there? Whom are you seeking?

Que lisez-vous? *Qu'est-ce* qui vous plaît?
A quoi vous intéressez-vous?
"Johnson m'a écrit"—"Ah! *Lequel* des Johnson?"

What do you read? What pleases you?
What do you take an interest in?
"Johnson has written me" —"Oh! Which Johnson?"

INDEFINITE:

On parle toujours trop,
On sonne,
On chante en haut,
On prend à gauche,
On vous dira que...

One always says too much.
Someone is ringing.
They are singing upstairs.
You turn to the left.
You will be told that...

Est-ce qu'il n'est venu *personne*?
Si, une *personne* est venue,
Elle a dit qu'elle reviendrait,
Il n'y a *personne de* plus bête,
Je ne me rappelle *rien*,
Je ne me suis *rien* rappelé,
Ne vous rappelez-vous *rien d'*autre?

Has no one come?
Yes, somebody did call.
He said he would call again.
*N*obody is more stupid.
I remember nothing.
I remembered nothing.
Don't you remember anything else?

V

VERBS

PLAN OF THIS CHAPTER:

A. Introductory remarks on French verbs.
B. French conjugations.
C. Differences in the use of the tenses in French and in English — Interrogation — *N*egation.
D. Classes of Verbs (passive, intransitive, reflexive, reciprocal, impersonal, defective.)

A. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS ON FRENCH *V*ERBS

1. Are French verbs more difficult than English verbs?

The conjugation of the English verb is of unparalleled simplicity, the infinitive form undergoing only five changes (ex.: to walk, walking, walked, thou walkest, he walks, thou walkedst), and the consequence is that the conjugation of verbs in any other language is sure to appear complicated.

2. What are the chief differences between the French verb and the English verb?

a) Each person has its own particular ending in French, whereas in English the person is indicated only by the pronoun. For instance the word WALK

has no definite meaning unless it is prefixed by I, WE, YOU, THEY, whereas in French the personal endings vary. Ex.:

I walk	*je march e*
We walk	*nous march ons*
You walk	*vous march ez*
They walk	*ils march ent*

These personal endings have been bequeathed to the French language by the Latin conjugation; they no doubt lend to the language more accuracy, variety, and harmony;

b) there is only one conjugation in English, but there are four in French, as there were four in Latin: AIMER (to love), FINIR (to finish), RECEVOIR (to receive), RENDRE (to render) are all conjugated according to different models because their endings (ER, IR, OIR, RE) are different;

c) there are slight differences also between the tenses in French and in English, the advantage being in favor sometimes of one, sometimes of the other language:

1. The present progressive (I AM WALKING) and the emphatic present (I DO WALK), so expressive in English, do not exist in French: *je marche* is the only form;

2. I WALKED or I WAS WALKING can be translated into French by: *je marchais* (imperfect), *je marchai*, (simple past), or *j'ai marché* (compound past); that is to say, the English language employs only two forms for the imperfect and

the simple past, and frequently uses one of them to translate the compound past or even the pluperfect (*j'avais marché*); the consequence is that French is clearer;

3. The French language possesses a very convenient tense, viz., the past anterior, translated into English by the pluperfect but indicating that the action mentioned came before another; ex.: AFTER I HAD EATEN I SLEPT, *après que j'eus mangé, je dormis;*

4. the French language lacks our very expressive double future (I SHALL WALK, I WILL WALK);

5. the imperative in French has only three persons and offers no real equivalent for LET ME WALK;

6. the subjunctive in French has four tenses, instead of one, and is used not only in every case in which it is used in English but in many others in which the English language uses the past or the future: additional clarity and elegance are the result.

B. FRENCH CONJUGATIONS

DIVISION OF THIS SECTION:

A) Preliminary.

B) Conjugation of *Avoir* (TO HAVE) and *Etre* (TO BE).

C) Conjugation of verbs in ER, IR, OIR, and RE, with remarks on irregular verbs in frequent use.

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2. What is the best method for learning French verbs?

French verbs are quickly learned, not by parrot-like repetition, but 1. by careful examination of their personal and temporal endings, (noticing numerous resemblances and occasional differences), and 2. by easy but frequent exercises on a variety of verbs suggested by another person; half an hour's *real attention* at the outset will secure results which seem marvelous only to the thoughtless.

3. What are the personal endings in the present indicative?

There are four conjugations:

1. Verbs the infinitive of which ends in ER; ex.: *aimer*
2. .. .. IR; ex.: *finir*
3. .. .. OIR; ex.: *recevoir*
4. .. .. RE; ex.: *rendre*

Present Indicative

AIMER:	FINIR:
J'aim e	*Je fin is*
Tu aim es	*Tu fin is*
Il aim e	*Il fin it*
Nous aim ons	*Nous fin issons*
Vous aim ez	*Vous fin issez*
Ils aim ent	*Ils fin issent*

RECEVOIR:	RENDRE:
Je reç ois	*Je rend s*
Tu reç ois	*Tu rend s*
Il reç oit	*Il rend*
Nous recev ons	*Nous rend ons*
Vous recev ez	*Vous rend ez*
Ils reçoiv ent	*Ils rend ent*

The syllables *aim, fin, reç, rend* are called the radical of the verbs AIM ER, FIN IR, REC EVOIR, and REND RE, that is to say the root syllable which does not change in the conjugation. The syllables added to the radical are called terminations or endings.

If we examine the terminations in the present indicative of the four verbs above we shall find:

1. that in the plural the terminations ONS, EZ, ENT, are the same in the four conjugations:

2. that in the singular, a) the ending of the first person is S except in *aimer;* b) the ending of the second is S in all four conjugations; c) the ending of the third is T or D except in *aimer;* so that after all we need only observe that one form, viz. *aime* in *j'aime* and *il aime,* differs from the rest.

Now it is all important to remember:

1. as stated above, that the endings ONS, EZ, ENT are found in the plural of each tense in every conjugation;
2. that S in the second person singular is found in every tense of each conjugation;
3. that T or D in the third person singular is found in all conjugations but the first, except in the future and the imperative and subjunctive.

4. What are the temporal (or tense) endings in each conjugation?

The answer to this question should be preceded by observing the distinction between simple and compound tenses: simple tenses are those in which the verb consists of only one word; ex.: pres. *j'aime,* imp. *j'aimais,* simple past, *j'aimai;* compound tenses consist of an auxiliary (*avoir,* TO HAVE or *être,* TO BE) followed by the past part. of the verb; ex.: compound past, *j'ai aimé,* future anterior, *j'aurai aimé,*

it being clear then that compound tenses always end with a past part. we need only give our attention to simple tenses in the following table:

Terminations of simple tenses in

	1. AIMER,	2. FINIR,
Infinitive	*er.*	*ir.*
Pres. Part.	*aim ant*	*finiss ant*
Past. Part.	*aim é*	*fin i*
Indic. Pres.	*j'aim e*	*je fin is*
" Imperfect	*j'aim ais*	*je finiss ais*
" Simple Past	*j'aim ai*	*je fin is*
" " Future	*j'aime rai*	*je fini rai*
Conditional	*j'aime rais*	*je fini rais*
Imperative	*Aim e*	*Fin is*
Subj. Present	*que j'aim e*	*que je finiss e*
" Imperfect	*que j'aimass e*	*que je finiss e*

	3. RECEVOIR,	4. RENDRE,
Infinitive	*oir.*	*re.*
Pres. Part.	*recev ant*	*rend ant*
Past. Part.	*reç u*	*rend u*
Indic. Pres.	*je reç ois*	*je rend s*
" Imperfect	*je recev ais*	*je rend ais*
" Simple Past	*je reç us*	*je rend is*
" " Future	*je recev rai*	*je rend rai*
Conditional	*je recev rais*	*je rend rais*
Imperative	*Reç ois*	*Rend s*
Subj. Present	*que je reçoiv e*	*que je rend e*
" Imperfect	*que je reçuss e*	*que je rendiss e*

Note.

1. The termination of the pres. part. is always ANT.
   — — — imperfect — — AIS
   — — — future — — RAI
   — — — conditional — — RAIS
   — — — subj. pres. — — E...
   — — — subj. imperf. — SE

2. The termination of the present indic., of the simple past, and of the imperative is s, except in *aimer*:

The conclusion is that the terminations of all simple tenses, except the infinitive and past part., are practically the same in every conjugation and can be learnt in a moment.

Exercise

1. To what conjugation do the following verbs belong?

1 *parler,* to speak
2 *courir,* to run.
3 *pourvoir,* to provide
4 *tendre,* to stretch
venir, to come
lire, to read
croire, to believe
decevoir, to disappoint

2. What should be the personal pronoun with the following verbs?

parlons	*parliez*	*parleront*	*parleriez*
parlez	*parlaient*	*parlerons*	*parleraient*
parlent	*parlions*	*parlerez*	*parlerions*
courons	*couraient*	*courrez*	*courraient*
courez	*courions*	*courront*	*courriez*
courent	*couriez*	*courrons*	*courrions*
tendons	*tendiez*	*tendrons*	*tendriez*
tendez	*tendaient*	*tendront*	*tendrions*
tendent	*tendions*	*tendrez*	*tendraient*

3. In what tense are the following verbs?

décev ant	*je parle rais*	*je lir ai*
parl ant	*je viend rais*	*je li sais*
tend ant	*je li rais*	*que je lus se*
je parl ais	*que je vienn e*	*je croir ais*
je décev ais	*que je lis e*	*je cour rai*
je tend ais	*que je tend e*	*je décev ais*
je di rai	*que je vins se*	*je viend rai*
je croi rai	*que je lus se*	*je ven ais*
je tend rai	*que je crus se*	*je viend rais*

What is the formation or derivation of tenses in French?

The principal tenses in French are:

1. The present infinitive; ex.: *aimer;*
   add AI (1), you have the future; ex.: *j'aimerai;*
   " AIS, you have the conditional; ex.: *j'aimerais;*

(1) Medieval French wrote *j'aimer ai* (i.e. *j'ai à aimer*) *j'écrire ai* (i.e. *j'ai à écrire*) which corresponded to the low Latin future *amare habeo, scribere habeo,* I have to love I have to write.

2. the present participle; ex.: *aim ant;*
substitute ONS for ANT you have the indic. pres. plural and the imperat. plural; ex.: *aim ons;*
substitute AIS for ANT; you have the imperfect;
ex.: *j'aim ais;*
substitute E for ANT; you have the subj. pres.;
ex.: *que j'aim e;*

3. the present indicative; ex.: *j'aime;*
similar to the imperat. sing.; ex.: *aime;*

4. the simple past in the second pers.; ex.: *tu aim as;*
add SE, you have the subj. imp., *que j'aimas se;*

5. the past participle; ex.: *aimé,* which terminates all compound tenses, viz. compound past, pluperfect, past anterior, future anterior, conditional past, subjunctive past, and subjunctive pluperfect.

These principal tenses ought to be particularly noticed in studying the irregular verbs.

Auxiliaries: *avoir,* TO HAVE, and *être,* TO BE.

1. What auxiliaries are used in conjugation?

In English TO HAVE and TO BE are used as auxiliaries in the conjugation both of transitive and intransitive verbs; ex.: I HAVE COME, I HAD WALKED, I SHALL HAVE FINISHED IT THEN, I SHOULD HAVE DONE IT, I AM GOING, I WAS WAITING, I SHALL BE LOSING IT, I WAS BEING QUESTIONED; in French *avoir,* TO HAVE, is used as the auxiliary of transitive verbs; ex.: *j'ai parlé,* I HAVE SPOKEN, and *être,* TO BE, is used as the auxiliary of intransitive and reflexive verbs; ex.: *je suis*

venu, I HAVE COME, *elle était montée,* SHE HAD GONE UPSTAIRS, *nous nous sommes fâchés,* WE HAVE GROWN ANGRY.

It is important, therefore, to give the conjugation of these two verbs at once, pointing out their irregularities.

2. What are the irregularities in the conjugation of *avoir?*

Avoir is irregular in the pres. part.: *ayant,*
" " " " past. part.: *eu,*
" " " " sing. of indic. pres.: *j'ai,*
" " " " simple past: *j'eus,*
" " " " future: *j'aurai* (1),
" " " " conditional: *j'aurais,*
" " " " subjunctive: *que j'aie.*

All these irregularities can be traced to the Latin verb *habere* or to its transformations.

B. CONJUGATION OF AVOIR, TO HAVE, AND ÊTRE, TO BE

3. Conjugate the verb *avoir*.

INFINITIVE:

Present.

Avoir, to have.

Past.

Avoir eu, to have had.

(1) The irregularity in the future and the conditional disappears when we remember that medieval French used indifferently u and v in writing, so that *j'aurai* and *j'avrai* were the same word.

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Compound Past.

J'ai eu, I have had
Tu as eu
Il a eu
Nous avons eu
Vous avez eu
Ils ont eu

Pluperfect.

J'avais eu, I had had, I had been having
Tu avais eu
Il avait eu
Nous avions eu
Vous aviez eu
Ils avaient eu

Past Anterior.

J'eus eu, I had had
Tu eus eu
Il eut eu
Nous eûmes eu
Vous eûtes eu
Ils eurent eu

Future.

J'aurai, I shall have
Tu auras
Il aura
Nous aurons
Vous aurez
Ils auront

Future Anterior.

J'aurai eu, I shall have had
Tu auras eu
Il aura eu
Nous aurons eu
Vous aurez eu
Ils auront eu

CONDITIONAL:

Present.

J'aurais, I should have
Tu aurais
Il aurait
Nous aurions
Vous auriez
Ils auraient

Past.

J'aurais eu, I should have had
Tu aurais eu
Il aurait eu
Nous aurions eu
Vous auriez eu
Ils auraient eu

IMPERATIVE:

Que j'aie, let me have
Aie, have
Qu'il ait, let him have
Ayons, let us have
Ayez, have
Qu'ils aient, let them have

SUBJUNCTIVE:

Present.

Que j'aie, that I may have
Que tu aies
Qu'il ait
Que nous ayons
Que vous ayez
Qu'ils aient

Imperfect.

Que j'eusse, that I might have
Que tu eusses
Qu'il eût
Que nous eussions
Que vous eussiez
Qu'ils eussent

Past.

Que j'aie eu, that I may have had
Que tu aies eu
Qu'il ait eu
Que nous ayons eu
Que vous ayez eu
Qu'ils aient eu

Pluperfect.

Que j'eusse eu, that I might have had
Que tu eusses eu
Qu'il eût eu
Que nous eussions eu
Que vous eussiez eu
Qu'ils eussent eu

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Imperfect.

J' étais, I was
Tu étais
Il était
Nous étions
Vous étiez
Ils étaient

Simple Past.

Je fus, I was
Tu fus
Il fut
Nous fûmes
Vous fûtes
Ils furent

Compound Past.

J'ai été, I have been
Tu as été
Il a été
Nous avons été
Vous avez été
Ils ont été

Pluperfect.

J'avais été, I had been
Tu avais été
Il avait été
Nous avions été
Vous aviez été
Ils avaient été

Past Anterior.

J'éus été, I had been
Tu eus été
Il eut été
Nous eûmes été
Vous eûtes été
Ils eurent été

Future.

Je serai, I shall be
Tu seras
Il sera
Nous serons
Vous serez
Ils seront

Future Anterior.

J'aurai été, I shall have been
Tu auras été
Il aura été
Nous aurons été
Vous aurez été
Ils auront été

Conditional:

Present.

Je serais, I should be
Tu serais
Il serait
Nous serions
Vous seriez
Ils seraient

Past.

J'aurais été, I should have been
Tu aurais été
Il aurait été
Nous aurions été
Vous auriez été
Ils auraient été

IMPERATIVE:

Que je sois, let me be
Sois, be
Qu'il soit, let him be
Soyons, let us be
Soyez, be
Qu'ils soient, let them be

SUBJUNCTIVE:

Present.

Que je sois, that I may be
Que tu sois
Qu'il soit
Que nous soyons
Que vous soyez
Qu'ils soient

Imperfect.

Que je fusse, that I might be
Que tu fussēs
Qu'il fût
Que nous fussions
Que vous fussiez
Qu'ils fussent

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300 in IR, and all the other verbs (about 4,000) end in ER.

Whenever the French invent or adopt a new verb, they conjugate it on *aimer* (in a few cases on *finir*), and for this reason the two conjugations in ER or IR are called "living" while the less important conjugations in OIR and RE are termed "dead."

The conjugation in ER is the easiest of the four and has only two irregular verbs in daily use.

First Conjugation (ER) 4000 *Verbs.*

3. Conjugate a verb in *er.* (1)

INFINITIVE:

Present.

Aim er (2), to love

Past.

Avoir aim é, to have loved

PARTICIPLE:

Present.

Aim ant, loving

Past.

Aim é, loved

Compound Past.

Ayant aimé, having loved

(1) The moment the student knows *aimer* he will do well always to practise other verbs in ER, constantly varying the order of the tenses.

(2) The termination ER corresponds to latin verbs in ARE, ex.: *aimer.*

INDICATIVE:

Present.

J'aim e, I love
Tu aim es
Il aim e
Nous aim ons
Vous aim ez
Ils aim ent

Imperfect.

J'aim ais, I loved, I was loving
Tu aim ais
Il aim ait
Nous aim ions
Vous aim iez
Ils aim èrent

Simple Past.

J'aim ai, I loved
Tu aim as
Il aïm a
Nous aim âmes
Vous aim âtes
Ils aim èrent

Compound Past.

J'ai aimè é, I have loved
Tu as aim é
Il a aim é
Nous avons aim é
Vous avez aim é
Ils ont aim é

Pluperfect.

J'avais aim é, I had loved, I had been [loving
Tu avais aim é
Il avait aim é
Nous avions aim é
Vous aviez aim é
Ils avaient aim é

Past Anterior.

J'eus aim é, I had loved
Tu eus aim é
Il eut aim é
Nous eûmes aim é
Vous eûtes aim é
Ils eurent aim é

Future.

J'aimer ai, I shall love
Tu aimer as
Il aimer a
Nous aimer ons
Vous aimer ez
Ils aimer ont

Future Anterior.

J'aurai aim é, I shall have loved
Tu auras aim é
Il aura aim é
Nous aurons aim é
Vous aurez aim é
Ils auront aim é

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Imperfect.

Que j'aim asse, that I might love
Que tu aim asses
Qu'il aim ât
Que nous aim assions
Que vous aim assiez
Qu'ils aim assent

Past.

Que j'aie aim é, that I may have loved
Que tu aies aim é
Qu'il ait aim é
Que nous ayons aim é
Que vous ayez aim é
Qu'ils aient aim é

Pluperfect.

Que j'eusse aim é, that I might have loved
Que tu eusses aim é
Qu'il eût aim é
Que nous eussions aim é
Que vous eussiez aim é
Qu'ils eussent aim é

4. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) That the radical AIM does not change.
b) That the simple past is in AI, second person AS, and the past part is in É.

5. Are there any irregularities in the first conjugation?

a) Verbs in CER (ex.: *percer,* TO PIERCE) take a cedilla before A and O, as otherwise the C would sound like K, ex.: *il perça,* HE PIERCED;

b) verbs in GER (ex.: *manger*, TO EAT) take an E before A and O, as otherwise the G would sound like GH, ex.: *il mangea*, HE ATE;

c) verbs the last syllable but one of which has a mute E (ex.: *se promener*, TO WALK) or an É (ex.: *répéter*, TO REPEAT) change E or É into È before terminations in E, ES, ENT, ex.: *Je me promène, ils répètent*;

however the verbs:

appeler,	to call
chanceler,	to reel
épeler,	to spell
étinceler,	to sparkle
renouveler,	to renew
cacheter,	to seal
épousseter,	to dust
feuilleter,	to thread
jeter,	to throw
souffleter,	to cuff

all ending in LER or TER, instead of changing E or É into È, double the L or T of their termination: ex.: *tu appelles*, YOU CALL; *ils jettent*, THEY THROW;

d) verbs in AYER, OYER, UYER, change Y into I before a mute E, ex.: *je paie*, I PAY; *il emploie*, HE EMPLOYS; *ils m'ennuient*, THEY BORE ME.

6. What are the irregular verbs in *er*?

1. *Aller*, to go, which borrows in its tenses three radicals:

a) Inf. ALLER, *allant, allé*

ind. pres.: *nous allons, vous allez*
imp.: *j'allais*
simple past.: *j'allai*
subj. pres.: *que j'aille*
subj. imp.: *que j'allasse*

b) VA,

indic. pres.: *je vais, tu vas, il va, ils vont*
imperat.: *va* (*vas-y*)

c) IR,

fut.: *j'irai*
cond.: *j'irais*

2. *Envoyer,* TO SEND.
The future *j'enverrai* is the only irreg. tense.

Second Conjugation (IR) 300 *Verbs.*

7. Conjugate a verb in *ir.* (1)

INFINITIVE:

Present.

Fin ir, to finish

Past.

Avoir fin i, to have finished

(1) These verbs correspond (a) to the Latin verbs in IRE and (b) to many other verbs which gradually changed their infinitives to a form in ISCO or ESCO (Ex.: FLORESCO) indicating a beginning and consequently called inchoative.

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Compound Past.

J'ai fin i, I have finished
Tu as fin i
Il a fin i
Nous avons fin i
Vous avez fin i
Ils ont fin i

Pluperfect.

J'avais fin i, I had finished
Tu avais fin i
Il avait fin i
Nous avions fin i
Vous aviez fin i
Ils avaient fin i

Past Anterior.

J'eus fin i, I had finished
Tu eus fin i
Il eut fin i
Nous êumes fin i
Vous eûtes fin i
Ils eurent fin i

Future.

Je fin irai, I shall finish
Tu fin iras
Il fin ira
Nous fin irons
Vous fin irez
Ils fin iront

Future Anterior.

J'aurai fin i, I shall have finished
Tu auras fin i
Il aura fin i
Nous aurons fin i
Vous aurez fin i
Ils auront fin i

CONDITIONAL:

Present.

Je fin irais, I should finish
Tu fin irais
Il fin irait
Nous fin irions
Vous fin iriez
Ils fin iraient

Past.

J'aurais fin i, I should have finished
Tu aurais fin i
Il aurait fin i
Nous aurions fin i
Vous auriez fin i
Ils auraient fin i

IMPERATIVE:

Que je finisse, let me finish
Fin is, finish
Qu'il fin isse, let him finish
Fin issons, let us finish
Fin issez, finish
Qu'ils fin issent. let them finish

SUBJUNCTIVE:

Present.

Que je fin isse, that I may finish
Que tu fin isses
Qu'il fin isse
Que nous fin issions
Que vous fin issiez
Qu'ils fin issent

Imperfect.

Que je fin isse, that I might finish
Que tu fin isses
Qu'il fin ît
Que nous fin issions
Que vous fin issiez
Qu'ils fin issent

Past.

Que j'aie fin i, that I may have finished
Que tu aies fin i
Qu'il ait fin i
Que nous ayons fin i
Que vous ayez fin i
Qu'ils aient fin i

Pluperfect.

Que j'eusse fin i, that I might have fin-
Que tu eusses fin i [ished
Qu'il eût fin i
Que nous eussions fin i
Que vous eussiez fin i
Qu'ils eussent fin i

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Simp. past.	Compound past.
j'assaillis	*j'ai assailli*
je tressaillis	*j'ai tressailli*
je couvris	*j'ai couvert*
je cueillis	*j'ai cueilli*
j'offris	*j'ai offert*
j'ouvris	*j'ai ouvert*
je souffris	*j'ai souffert*

(The above verbs conjugate their indic. pres. on AIMER). Moreover *cucillir* has *je cueillerai* (not *cueillirai*) in the future.

Infinit.	Indic. pres.
Bouillir, to boil	*je bous*
	nous bouillons
Courir, to run	*je cours*
Dormir, to sleep	*je dors*
Fuir, to flee	*je fuis*
	nous fuyons
Mentir, to lie	*je mens*
Partir, to go	*je pars*
Se repentir, to repent	*je me repens*
Sentir, to feel	*je sens*
Servir, to serve	*je sers*
Sortir, to go out	*je sors*
Vêtir, to clothe	*je vêts*

Simple Past.	Past Participle.
je bouillis	*j'ai bouilli*
je courus	*j'ai couru*
je dormis	*j'ai dormi*
je fuis	*j'ai fui*

je mentis	*j'ai menti*
je partis	*je suis parti*
je me repentis	*je me suis repenti*
je sentis	*j'ai senti*
je servis	*j'ai servi*
je sortis	*je suis sorti*
je vêtis	*j'ai vêtu*

(The future of COURIR is *je courrai;* the future of the others is regular).

Infinitive.	Indic. Pres.
Acquérir, to acquire	*j'acquiers*
	nous acquérons
Mourir, to die	*je meurs*
	nous mourons
Tenir, to hold	*je tiens*
	nous tenons
Venir, to come	*je viens*
	nous venons

Simple Past.	Future.	Past Participle
j'acquis	*j'acquerrai*	*j'ai acquis*
je mourus	*je mourrai*	*je suis mort*
je tins	*je tiendrai*	*j'ai tenu*
je vins	*je viendrai*	*je suis venu*

Note.

HAÏR, to hate, in the present indicative is conjugated: *je hais, tu hais, il hait.* The imperat. sing. is also *hais.* Only these four forms lose the dieresis (¨) over *i.*

Bénir, to bless, is regular except in ecclesiastical phrases like *eau bénite,* holy water. *buis bénit,* blessed box.

Third Conjugation (OIR). 25 *Verbs.*

10. Conjugate a verb in *oir.* (1)

INFINITIVE:

Present.

Recev oir, to receive

Past.

Avoir reç u, to have received

PARTICIPLE:

Present.

Recev ant, receiving

Past.

Reç u, received

Compound.

Ayant reç u, having received

INDICATIVE:

Present.

Je reç ois, I receive
Tu reç ois
Il reç oit
Nous recev ons
Vous recev ez
Ils reç oivent

(1) These verbs are derived from Latin verbs in ĒRE or ĕRE.

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Past Anterior.

J'eus reç u, I had received
Tu eus reç u
Il eut reç u
Nous eûmes reç u
Vous eûtes reç u
Ils eurent reç u

Future.

Je recev rai, I shall receive
Tu recev ras
Il recev ra
Nous recev rons
Vous recev rez
Ils recev ront

Future Anterior.

J'aurai reç u, I shall have received
Tu auras reç u
Il aura reç u
Nous aurons reç u
Vous aurez reç u
Ils auront reç u

Conditional:

Present.

Je recev rais, I should receive
Tu recev rais
Il recev rait
Nous recev rions
Vous recev riez
Ils recev raient

Past.

J'aurais reç u, I should have received
Tu aurais reç u
Il aurait reç u
Nous aurions reç u
Vous auriez reç u
Ils auraient reç u

IMPERATIVE:

Que je reçoive, let me receive
Reç ois, receive
Qu'il reç oive, let him receive
Recev ons, let us receive
Recev ez, receive
Qu'ils reç oivent, let them receive

SUBJUNCTIVE:

Present.

Que je reçoiv e, that I may receive
Que tu reçoiv es
Qu'il reçoiv e
Que nous recev ions
Que vous recev iez
Qu'ils reçoiv ent

Imperfect.

Que je reç usse, that I might receive
Que tu reç usses
Qu'il reç ût
Que nous reç ussions
Que vous reç ussiez
Qu'ils reç ussent

Past.

Que j'aie reç u, That I may have re-
Que tu aies reç u [ceived
Qu'il ait reç u
Que nous ayons reç u
Que vous ayez reç u
Qu'ils aient reç u

Pluperfect.

Que j'eusse reç u, that I might have
Que tu eusses reç u [received
Qu'il eût reç u
Que nous eussions reç u
Que vous eussiez reç u
Qu'ils eussent reç u

11. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) There are not more than twenty to twenty-five verbs in OIR in frequent use;

b) most of them are irregular. Only *percevoir,* TO PERCEIVE, *apercevoir,* TO CATCH A GLIMPSE OF, *décevoir,* TO DECEIVE, *concevoir,* TO CONCEIVE, are conjugated like *recevoir,* and as their radical is variable (*recev* in *recev oir* becoming *reç* in *je reçois*) even these can hardly be called regular;

c) the simple past is in US, ex.: *je reç us,* and the past part. in U, ex.: *reç u;* however *voir,* TO SEE, and *prévoir,* TO FORESEE (but not *pourvoir,* TO PROVIDE) have their simple past in IS, ex.: *je vis,* I SAW.

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Simple Past.	Future.	Past Part.
j'assis	*j'assiérai* or *j'asseoirai* or *j'asseyerai*	*j'ai assis*
je dus	*je devrai*	*j'ai dû*
je mus	*je mouvrai*	*j'ai mû*

Infinitive.	Indic. Pres.
Pouvoir, can, may	*je peux* or *je puis* *nous pouvons*
Savoir, to know	*je sais* *nous savons* (Imperative: *Sache* Subj. Pres. *Que je sache* Participle Pres. *Sachant*)
Seoir, to be becoming	*il sied* Participle Pres.: *Seyant*
Voir, to see	*je vois* *nous voyons*
Vouloir, to want	*je veux* *nous voulons*

Simple Past.	Future.	Past Part.
je pus	*je pourrai*	*j'ai pu*
je sus	*je saurai* *il siéra*	*j'ai su*
je vis	*je verrai*	*j'ai vu*
je voulus	*je voudrai*	*j'ai voulu*

Fourth Conjugation (RE), 80 *Verbs.*

13. Conjugate a verb in *re.* (1)

INFINITIVE:

Present.

Rend re, to render

Past.

Avoir rend u, to have rendered

PARTICIPLE:

Present.

Rend ant, rendering

Past.

Rend u, rendered

Compound.

Ayant rend u, having rendered

INDICATIVE:

Present.

Je rend s, I render
Tu rend s
Il rend
Nous rend ons
Vous rend ez
Ils rend ent

(1) These verbs are derived mostly from Latin verbs in ĔRE.

Imperfect.

Je rend ais, I rendered
Tu rend ais
Il rend ait
Nous rend ions
Vous rend iez
Ils rend aient

Simple Past.

Je rend is, I rendered
Tu rend is
Il rend it
Nous rend îmes
Vous rend îtes
Ils rend irent.

Compound Past.

J'ai rend u, I have rendered
Tu as rend u
Il a rend u
Nous avons rend u
Vous avez rend u
Ils ont rend u

Pluperfect.

J'avais rend u, I had rendered
Tu avais rend u
Il avait rend u
Nous avions rend u
Vous aviez rend u
Ils avaient rend u

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Past.

J'aurais rend u, I should have rendered
Tu aurais rend u
Il aurait rend u
Nous aurions rend u
Vous auriez rend u
Ils auraient rend u

IMPERATIVE:

Que je rende, let me render
Rend s, render
Qu'il rend e, let him render
Rend ons, let us render
Rend ez, render
Qu'ils rend ent, let them render

SUBJUNCTIVE:

Present.

Que je rend e, that I may render
Que tu rend es
Qu'il rend e
Que nous rend ions
Que vous rend iez
Qu'ils rend ent

Imperfect.

Que je rend isse, that I might render
Que tu rend isses
Qu'il rend ît
Que nous rend issions
Que vous rend issiez
Qu'ils rend issent

Past.

Que j'aie rend u, that I may have ren-
Que tu aies rend u [dered
Qu'il ait rend u
Que nous ayons rend u
Que vous ayez rend u
Qu'ils aient rend u

Pluperfect.

Que j'eusse rend u, that I might have
Que tu eusses rend u [rendered
Qu'il eût rend u
Que nous eussions rend u
Que vous eussiez rend u
Qu'ils eussent rend u

14. What is to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) It numbers about 80 verbs;

b) these 80 verbs can be classified as follows:

1. Verbs in ENDRE, (*descendre,* TO GO DOWN, *fendre,* TO SPLIT, *défendre,* TO FORBID, *pendre,* TO HANG, *tendre,* TO STRETCH, *vendre,* TO SELL).
   Verbs in ONDRE (*fondre,* TO MELT, *pondre,* TO LAY EGGS, *répondre,* TO ANSWER, *tondre,* TO SHEAR); also *rompre,* TO BREAK.
   Verbs in RDRE (*perdre,* TO LOSE, *mordre,* TO BITE, *tordre,* TO WRING)
   are conjugated like RENDRE.
2. Verbs in AINDRE (*craindre,* TO FEAR, *plaindre,* TO PITY, *contraindre,* TO FORCE).
   Verbs in EINDRE (*ceindre,* TO GIRD, *feindre,* TO FEIGN, *enfreindre,* TO BREAK A RULE, *geindre,*

TO GROAN, *peindre*, TO PAINT, *empreindre*, TO IMPRINT, *teindre*, TO DYE, *atteindre*, TO REACH, *éteindre*, TO EXTINGUISH, *astreindre*, TO COMPEL, *étreindre*, TO HUG, *restreindre*, TO RESTRICT), and verbs in OINDRE (*oindre*, TO ANOINT, *joindre*, TO JOIN, *poindre*, TO BREAK OUT (sun), have all added the D for euphony (*crainre* instead of *craindre* is harsh) and their real radical is AIN, EIN, OIN; hence their present indic. *je crains, je peins, j'oins.* and their imperat. are without a D;

in all the other tenses, except the future (*craindrai*) and conditional (*craindrais*) they change AIN, EIN, OIN, into AIGN, EIGN, OIGN (*je craignis, je peignis, j'oignis*);

3. Verbs in AÎTRE (*connaître*, TO KNOW, *paître*, TO BROWSE, *paraître*, TO APPEAR,) or in OÎTRE *croître*, TO INCREASE, *décroître*, TO DECREASE) have added the T for euphony and this T disappears in the pres. indic. (*je connais*), the imperfect (*je connaissais*) and the tenses derived from them;

the simple past. is in US, (*je connus*) and the past part. in U, (*connu*).

4. Verbs in UIRE (*nuire*, TO HURT, *luire*, TO SHINE, *construire*, TO BUILD, *détruire*, TO DESTROY, *instruire*, TO INSTRUCT, *conduire*, TO LEAD, *enduire*, TO COAT, *induire*, TO INDUCE, *introduire*, TO INTRODUCE, *réduire*, TO REDUCE) have their radical in UIS, (*je nuis, je nuisais, je nuisis*), but their future is in UIRAI (*je nuirai*), and their conditional in UIRAIS (*je nuirais*), the past part. is in UI, (*j'ai nui*).

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Écrire, to write	*j'écris*	*j'écrivis*
	nous écrivons	
Faire, to do	*je fais*	*je fis*
	nous faisons	
	vous faites	
	ils font	
	(Subj. Pres.: *que je fasse*)	

Infinitive.	Future.	Past. Part.
Absoudre, to absolve	*j'absoudrai*	*j'ai absous*
Dissoudre, to dissolve	*je dissoudrai*	*j'ai dissous*
Résoudre, to resolve	*je résoudrai*	*j'ai résolu*
Coudre, to sew	*je coudrai*	*j'ai cousu*
Moudre, to grind	*je moudrai*	*j'ai moulu*
Battre, to beat	*je battrai*	*j'ai batiu*
Mettre, to put	*je mettrai*	*j'ai mis*
Boire, to drink	*je boirai*	*j'ai bu*
Conclure, to conclude	*je conclurai*	*j'ai conclu*
Confire, to preserve	*je confirai*	*j'ai confit*
Exclure, to exclude	*j'exclurai*	*j'ai exclu*
Maudire, to curse	*je maudirai*	*j'ai maudit*
Croire, to believe	*je croirai*	*j'ai cru*
Dire, to say	*je dirai*	*j'ai dit*
Écrire, to write	*j'écrirai*	*j'ai écrit*
Faire, to do	*je ferai*	*j'ai fait*

Infinitive.	Indic. Pres.	Simple Past.
Lire, to read	*je lis*	*je lus*
	nous lisons	
Plaire, to please	*je plais*	*je plus*
	nous plaisons	
Prendre, to take	*je prends*	*je pris*
	nous prenons	

Rire, to laugh	*je ris*	*je ris*
Suffire, to suffice	*je suffis*	*je suffis*
	nous suffisons	
Suivre, to follow	*je suis*	*je suivis*
	nous suivons	
Se taire, to be silent	*je me tais*	*je me tus*
Vaincre, to conquer	*je vaincs*	*je vainquis*
	il vainc	
	nous vainquons	
Vivre, to live	*je vis*	*je vécus*
Braire, to bray	*il brait*	
	ils braient	
Clore, to close	*je clos*	
	tu clos	
	il clôt	
Éclore, to hatch	*j'éclos*	
	tu éclos	
	il éclôt	
	ils éclosent	
Frire, to fry	*je fris*	
	tu fris	
	il frit.	
Traire, to milk	*je trais*	
	nous trayons	

Infinitive.	Future.	Past Part
Lire, to read	*je lirai*	*j'ai lu*
Plaire, to please	*je plairai*	*j'ai plu*
Prendre, to take	*je prendrai*	*j'ai pris*
Rire, to laugh	*je rirai*	*j'ai ri*
Suffire, to suffice	*je suffirai*	*j'ai suffi*
Suivre, to follow	*je suivrai*	*j'ai suivi*
Se taire, to be silent	*je me tairai*	*je me suis tu*

Vaincre, to conquer	*je vaincrai*	*j'ai vaincu*
Vivre, to live	*je vivrai*	*j'ai vécu*
Braire, to bray	*il braira*	
	ils brairont	
Clore, to close	*je clorai*	*j'ai clos*
Éclore, to hatch	*j'éclorai*	*j'ai éclos*
Frire, to fry	*je frirai*	*j'ai frit*
Traire, to milk	*je trairai*	*j'ai trait*

C. THE USE OF TENSES

INFINITIVE

1. Is not the infinitive frequently used in French instead of the present participle in English?

a) The infinitive is constantly used in French, as the present participle is constantly used in English, as a subject or an object, ex.: DYING FOR ONE'S COUNTRY IS THE NOBLEST LOT, *mourir pour sa patrie c'est le sort le plus beau;* I DISLIKE PUNISHING A LITTLE BOY, *je déteste punir un petit garçon;*

b) the infinitive is used instead of the present participle (1) after prepositions (*avant de, après, au lieu de, de, sans*), ex.: THINK BEFORE SPEAKING, *réfléchissez avant de parler;*
however, the present participle is used after EN (meaning IN, WHILE, BY, or ON), ex.: *ne lisez pas en mangeant,* DO NOT READ WHILE EATING; *en arrivant,* ON ARRIVING.

(1) In this connection called GERUND by grammarians.

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jective (ex.: MY CONVINCING SPEECH PERSUADED HIM).

In the first case (*participle*) there is no agreement, ex.: *on voit ces montagnes dominant tout l'Hudson,* YOU SEE THOSE MOUNTAINS DOMINATING THE WHOLE HUDSON;

in the second case (*verbal adjective*) the word is regarded as an adjective and agrees with the noun, ex.: *montrez-moi les points dominants,* SHOW ME THE HIGHEST POINTS.

2. What is the agreement of the past participle?

a) When the past participle is accompanied by ÊTRE it agrees with the subject; ex.: *les Présidents sont élus en novembre,* PRESIDENTS ARE ELECTED IN NOVEMBER; *la petite s'est réveillée,* THE BABY (*girl*) HAS AWAKENED;

b) when the past participle is accompanied by AVOIR it agrees with the object when the object comes before, not so if it comes after; ex.: *j'ai fait bien des bévues,* I MADE MANY BLUNDERS; *les bévues que j'ai faites,* THE BLUNDERS I MADE;

c) the past participle of intransitive verbs never agrees, ex.: THIS HOUSE ONCE BELONGED TO MY MOTHER, *cette maison a appartenu à ma mère.*

Note.

1. When the past participle is followed by an infinitive, ex.: *les actrices que j'ai vu* (or *vues*) *jouer,* THE ACTRESSES WHOM I SAW ACT, modern usage is strongly in favor of the participle remaining unchanged.
2. The past participles PU, DÛ, VOULU, never change; ex.: *il a fait tous les voyages qu'il a voulu* (understood: *faire*); HE TOOK ALL THE JOURNEYS HE WISHED.

PRESENT INDICATIVE

1. Is not the present sometimes used in French instead of the past, as in English?

Yes, in four cases:

1. in a very vivid narration; ex.: *Lafayette comprend, il quitte l'Amérique, vole en France, et revient avec de l'or,* LAFAYETTE REALIZED THE SITUATION, LEFT AMERICA, FLEW OVER TO FRANCE, AND CAME BACK WITH MONEY;

2. in the very frequent phrase; *je viens de,* I HAVE JUST; ex.: *il vient de sortir,* HE HAS JUST GONE OUT;

3. in the phrases *c'est moi, c'est lui,* etc., beginning a sentence referring to the past; ex.: *c'est moi qui vous ai écrit,* IT WAS I WHO WROTE TO YOU;

4. in sentences like: I HAVE BEEN HERE AN HOUR, *je suis ici depuis une heure* or *il y a une heure que je suis ici.*

2. Is not the present frequently used in French instead of the future?

Yes, colloquially, as in English; ex.: I SAIL ON THE FIFTH, *je m'embarque le cinq.*

IMPERFECT

Does the English language possess a form corresponding to the French imperfect?

The word IMPERFECT means incomplete, and in the language of grammarians denotes an action which is not, or was not, entirely past at the time referred to.

We possess this tense in English. For instance, the word SMOKED is certainly an imperfect—not a past—in a sentence like the following: HE USED TO BE SILENT WHEN HE SMOKED, *il se taisait généralement quand il fumait.*

But we must notice that the very same word, SMOKED, is much more frequently used to denote an action completely past, for example, in the two following sentences: HE SMOKED FOUR CIGARS LAST NIGHT; HE SMOKED HIMSELF ILL, which the French language would translate, using not the imperfect but the past: *il a fumé quatre cigares hier soir; il a fumé jusqu'à se rendre malade.* The conclusion should be that the shade of meaning denoted by the imperfect is more frequent in French than in English.

In reality the French imperfect is generally rendered in English by the progressive; ex.: HE WAS SMOKING (WHEN HIS FATHER WENT IN), *il fumait* (*quand son père entra*), or by the words USED TO; ex.: HE USED TO SMOKE MORE THAN HE DOES NOW, *il fumait plus qu'à présent.*

Note.

In sentences like *il fumait quand son père entra*—which can be translated in English by the progressive HE WAS SMOKING—the French language frequently uses *être en train de,* ex.: *il était en train de fumer quand son père entra.*

SIMPLE PAST AND COMPOUND PAST

1. When does the French language use the simple past?

Except in the South and in a few regions in the West of France, the simple past (*j'écrivis, je partis*) is no longer used colloquially and seldom

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Note.

Pluperfect means "more than complete" and is so called because it denotes a past action which came before another, also past: it takes our memory farther back than the mere past, for instance, in a sentence like: I FAILED or I TRIED TO, which conjures up only one past occurrence.

FUTURE

1. Does French use the present instead of the future after when, as soon as, the moment, whenever, the first who, etc.?

No, the meaning here implied is future and the verb is in the future in French; ex.: CALL ME UP THE MOMENT THE DOCTOR ARRIVES, *téléphonez-moi sitôt que le médecin arrivera;*
we use the imperfect instead of the conditional in similar sentences referring to the past, but here again the French language uses the conditional, ex.: YOU WERE TO CALL ME UP THE MOMENT THE DOCTOR ARRIVED, *vous deviez me téléphoner sitôt que le médecin arriverait.*

2. How does the French language translate *I am going to* or *I will* with an infinitive?

By JE VAIS, which has become a sort of auxiliary of the future, ex.: I AM GOING TO BUY A BICYCLE, *je vais acheter une bicyclette,* I WILL GO TO HIS ROOM, *je vais aller à sa chambre.*

Note.

1. Partly on account of WILL meaning *vouloir,* partly because JE VAIS and JE VEUX sound somewhat alike, it is not rare to hear English-speaking people make the mistake: *je veux aller à sa chambre* instead of *je vais.*

However, notice that the interrogation "will you go to his room?" is translated: *voulez-vous aller à sa chambre?*

2. DEVOIR is also used to denote the future; ex.: *nous devons déménager,* WE ARE TO MOVE OUT.

FUTURE ANTERIOR

1. What is the meaning of the term "future anterior"?

English grammarians generally call this tense future perfect (i.e. *future past*) which no doubt is a puzzling expression. The French is clearer. Anterior means previous. So the future anterior announces an action which will have already taken place when another action happens; ex.: BY THE TIME YOU GET THERE HE WILL HAVE FOUND AN INTERPRETER, *quand vous arriverez il aura trouvé un interprète.*

Note.

The French tense is exactly similar to the English tense

il aura	+	*trouvé.*
HE WILL HAVE.	+	FOUND.

2. Is not the future anterior more frequent in French than in English?

Yes, it is constantly met with in sentences in which the English language uses MUST, PROBABLY, I AM AFRAID, THERE IS NO DOUBT, with the past. For instance, people whom you were expecting do not turn up and you cast about for the causes of their delay: "IT MUST HAVE RAINED" or "THEY HAD A BREAKDOWN, NO DOUBT" or "I'M AFRAID THE BABY IS ILL." In French all these sentences would include a future anterior: *"il aura plu"; "ils auront eu une panne, sans doute"; le bébé aura été malade, je le crains."*

CONDITIONAL

1. Cannot the conditional be replaced by another tense?

Yes, the past conditional is frequently replaced by the subjunctive pluperfect; ex.: IT WOULD HAVE BEEN EASY, *il eût été facile.*

This substitution is largely a matter of euphony and the conditional can always be used.

2. Is there not a case in which the conditional in French can never be translated by the same tense in English?

Yes, French newspapers frequently use the conditional to announce an event which is supposed to be probable; ex.: *le président démissionnerait, le Sénat se réunirait le* 18; PRESIDENT EXPECTED TO RESIGN, SENATE PROBABLY TO MEET ON THE 18TH.

3. What is the French translation of "if you should come"?

The same as that of "IF YOU CAME" or "IN CASE YOU CAME", viz., *si vous veniez.*

Note.

IF I SHOULD HAVE MOVED (or HAD I MOVED) I SHOULD HAVE BEEN A DEAD MAN is frequently translated by: *si je bougeais, j'étais un homme mort,* both conditionals being translated by the imperfect.. This usage recalls the narrative present (*see* page 120).

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rather than things exterior to us. When we point out a fact we naturally use the indicative (Latin *indicare,* TO POINT AT); ex.: I KNOW HE IS DEAD; when we are not so sure, we use the more subjective form of speech; ex.: IF, AS I AM AFRAID HE WERE DEAD.

2. What are the cases in which there is no doubt that the subjunctive must be used in French?

a) In every case in which the subjunctive is found in either classical or modern English, remembering that the subjunctive in English is denoted not only by the subjunctive proper (*though I be, though I were*) but also by the forms THAT I MAY and THOUGH HE SHOULD; ex.:

1. (*Subjunctive proper*): UNLESS YOUR SON REPENT, *à moins que votre fils ne se repente;* WHETHER THAT MAN CONSENT OR NOT, *que cet homme consente ou non;* THOUGH HE BE SOLE HEIR, *bien qu'il soit seul héritier;*

   I WOULD SUGGEST THAT HE WRITE: *je consaillerais qu'il écrive;*

   I THEREFORE PROPOSE THAT CONGRESS RECOGNIZE...., *Donc, je propose que le Congrès reconnaisse....*

2. (*May*): I SAY THIS THAT YOU MAY FULLY REALIZE, *je dis cela pour que vous compreniez parfaitement;*

   MAY HIS NAME BE BLESSED! *que son nom soit béni!*

3. (*Should*): I AM SORRY SHE SHOULD THINK; *je suis fâché qu'elle croie;*

WHAT A PITY THAT HE SHOULD HAVE GIVEN UP MUSIC! *quel dommage qu'il ait abandonné la musique!*

b) When the final clause of a sentence includes a verb in the infinitive (1); ex.:

HIS FATHER WANTS HIM TO BE A DOCTOR, *son père veut qu'il soit médecin;*

IT IS TOO LATE FOR HIM TO LEARN MUSIC, *il est trop tard pour qu'il apprenne la musique..*

3. In what cases does French use the subjunctive though the verb is in the indicative (present, past or future) in English?

We may say that French uses the subjunctive instead of our indicative wherever, as we said above,

a) the person who speaks expresses his own state of mind (joy or the reverse, will, etc.); ex.:

I AM GLAD THAT YOU ARE COMING TOO, *je suis heureux que vous veniez aussi;*

HE IS SURPRISED AT YOUR REFUSING, *il s'étonne que vous refusiez;*

I WAS FURIOUS AT YOUR NOT HEARING ME, *j'étais furieux de ce que vous ne m'entendiez pas;*

b) and especially when a certain amount of uncertainty is felt in the sentence. This happens chiefly with verbs indicating:

1. a doubt; ex.: I DOUBT THAT SHE WILL EVER RECOVER, *je doute qu'elle guérisse jamais;*
2. a possibility; ex.: SHE MAY GET WELL, *il est possible qu'elle guérisse;*

(1) This is the case with such English verbs as TO WANT, TO ORDER, TO WISH, etc., noting the action of the will.

Note.

IT IS PROBABLE THAT SHE WILL GET WELL is translated by: *il est probable qu'elle guérira,* because probability shows us the fact as if it actually existed.

3. an hypothesis; ex.: LET US SUPPOSE THAT AN ACCIDENT OCCURS, *supposons qu'un accident se produise;*
4. a negation; ex.: I DO NOT SEE THAT HE IS SO VERY BRAVE, *je ne vois pas qu'il soit si brave,* I SAW NOTHING THAT IMPRESSED ME VERY MUCH, *je n'ai rien vu qui m'ait beaucoup frappé;*
5. an interrogation; ex.: IS IT TRUE THAT WAR SOMETIMES IS A BENEFIT? *est-il vrai que parfois la guerre soit un bien?*
6. a concession; ex.: THOUGH HE WAS A KING, *bien qu'il fût roi;* WHETHER HE COMES OR NOT, *qu'il vienne ou non.*

4. Is there not a French verb after which the subjunctive is always used?

Yes, FALLOIR, to be necessary, when followed by QUE; ex.: IT IS NECESSARY FOR ME TO LEAVE, *il faut que je parte;* I HAD TO LEAVE, *il fallut que je partisse;* I SHALL HAVE TO LEAVE, *il faudra que je parte.*

5. Are there not many adverbial phrases after which the subjunctive is always used?

Yes, the subjunctive is always used in adverbial sentences denoting:

1. finality or purpose (*afin que* or short *que,* IN ORDER THAT, *pour que,* THAT, *de manière que,* IN SUCH A WAY or SO THAT; ex.:

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gined as already realized. However, the effect of the condition implied in the sentence appears in the subordinate clause, which is in the subjunctive, ex.: IF A MAN SHOULD APPEAR AND MOCK YOU...., *si quelqu'un paraissait* (indic.) *qui se moquât* (subj.) *de vous.*

Note.

The elaborate form *si j'eusse voulu,* HAD I CONSENTED, *s'il fût venu,* HAD HE TURNED UP, can always be replaced by the indicative pluperfect *si j'avais voulu, s'il était venu.*

7. What is the concord of tenses in the subjunctive?

a) When the verb in the principal clause (generally the first half of the sentence) is in the present the verb in the subordinate clause should be in the subjunctive present; ex.: *je doute qu'il puisse vous payer,* I DOUBT IF HE CAN PAY YOU;

b) when the verb in the principal clause is in the past or the conditional the verb in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive imperfect, if the person who speaks refers to something having happened simultaneously; ex.: I DID NOT THINK HE WAS LYING TO ME, *je ne croyais pas qu'il me mentît;*
it is in the subjunctive pluperfect if mention is made of an action previous to the time alluded to; ex.: I DID NOT SUSPECT HE HAD TOLD A LIE, *je ne soupçonnais pas qu'il eût menti.*

Note.

The subjunctive imperfect is gradually being replaced by the present on account of the comical sound of forms like *de peur que nous nous moquassions, avant que vous n'oubliassiez,* etc. However, it is retained in the third pers. sing. (*de peur qu'il ne se moquât, avant qu'il n'oubliât*), which is perfectly euphonious.

8. What method should we follow to master the rules given above?

We know a rule thoroughly when we begin to apply it instinctively. Only practise will develop an instinct. The best kind of practise should be the invention of sentences exemplifying the rules. Begin where you will find it easiest, that is to say with sentences in which the English language as well as the French makes use of the subjunctive; ex.: THOUGH HE BE A KING, THAT I MAY SUCCEED, LEST HE SHOULD FORGET, etc.; then go on to adverbial sentences automatically bringing in the subjunctive; ex.: *avant qu'il ne parte, jusqu'à ce que je vienne,* etc. You will soon find that the subjunctive will, in such sentences, seem quite natural to you, and a habit being thus created, you will be ready to go on to cases (like those described in question 3) requiring a little more attention.

INTERROGATION—NEGATION

INTERROGATION

1. What difference is there between the mode of interrogation in English and in French?

The French language has nothing comparable to the verb TO DO as an auxiliary in interrogative sentences. So whenever we interrogate in French we must dismiss DO from our mind (unless of course the verb is *faire*), and think of simpler forms like MAY I? CAN YOU? HAVE THEY? NEED I? French interrogations always limit themselves, like the foregoing, to simply placing the pronoun after the verb; ex.: MAY I? *puis-je?* DOES HE COME? *vient-il?* DID SHE WRITE? *écrivait-elle?*

2. Conjugate a verb interrogatively in the present indicative and the past?

CHANTER, to sing.

Present	Simple Past
Chanté-je? Do I sing?	*Chantai-je?* Did I sing?
chantes-tu? Dost thou sing?	*chantas-tu?* Didst thou sing?
chante-t-il? Does he sing?	*chanta-t-il?* Did he sing?
chantons-nous? Do we sing?	*chantâmes-nous?* Did we sing?
chantez-vous? Do you sing?	*chantâtes-vous?* Did you sing?
chantent-ils? Do they sing?	*chantèrent-ils?* Did they sing?

Note.

1. *Chanté-je?* is not the mere inversion of *je chante*: an acute accent on *te* gives clarity to the sound.
2. In *chante-t-il?* and *chanta-t-il? t* is inserted for euphony.
3. *Chantent-ils?* is pronounced like *chante-t-il?*

3. Is *Chanté-je?* in frequent use in modern French?

No, it is practically an archaism.

The only verbs conjugated in the first person indicative in that way are: *ai-je? (qu'ai-je fait?)* — *dis-je? (que dis-je?)* — *dois-je? (dois-je le dire?)* — *puis-je? (où puis-je aller?)* — *suis-je? (qui suis-je pour oser...?)* — *vois-je? (que vois-je?)*.

Note.

PUISSÉ-JE! is a subjunctive and means MAY I!

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NEGATION

1. What difference is there between negative sentences in English and in French?

English uses the auxiliary TO DO in negative sentences (I DO NOT WRITE, YOU DID NOT READ); French does not. Negative sentences in French resemble very nearly those negative sentences in English from which DO is absent; ex.: I HAVE NOT, *je n'ai pas;* I DARE NOT, *je n'ose pas;* I KNOW NOT, *je ne sais pas.*

The only difference is that instead of one negation, NOT, French uses two, NE....PAS, between which the verb is inserted.

Note.

1. JE N'OSE and JE NE SAIS are used in formal speech for *je n'ose pas, je ne sais pas.*
2. The suppression of PAS after SI is frequent; ex.: *Si je ne craignais de vous fatiguer,* IF I WERE NOT AFRAID OF TIRING YOU.
3. The infinitive is placed after NE PAS; ex.: *être ou ne pas être,* TO BE OR NOT TO BE.

2. What is the French for "You do nothing"?

"YOU DO NOTHING" is translated by "*vous ne faites rien*" (and not by "*vous faites rien*"): that is to say the French sentence would correspond exactly to the illiterate "YOU DO NOT DO NOTHING, if *pas* were not eliminated.

Every negative sentence including the words *ne... jamais,* NEVER, *ne...plus,* NO MORE, NO LONGER, *ni...ni,* NEITHER...NOR, *nulle part,* NOWHERE, *pas de, aucun,* NO, *personne,* NOBODY, and *rien,*

NOTHING, is translated in the same manner, leaving *pas* out; ex.: I KNOW NOBODY HERE, *je ne connais personne ici.*

Note.

Personne, NOBODY, and *rien*, NOTHING, used as subjects, are followed by NE; ex.: *Personne n'est venu*, NOBODY CAME; *Rien ne vous plaît*, NOTHING PLEASES YOU.

3. What difference is there between *ne pas* and *pas de?*

Ne pas is an adverb meaning NOT, while *pas de* is an adjective meaning NO;
ex.:

Je n'ai pas mon argent, I HAVE NOT MY MONEY.
Je n'ai pas d'argent, I HAVE NO MONEY.

Résumé

What rules are exemplified in the following sentences?

J'aime *nager*,	I love swimming.
Avant *de plonger*,	Before diving.
En *plongeant*,	While diving.
Que *penser?*	What could I think?
Et le renard *de courir*,	Whereupon master fox ran away.
Fermer la porte,	Please close the door.
Des livres *amusants*,	Amusing books.
Ces livres *amusant* mon fils.....	As these books amuse my son....

Est-il venu?	Did he come?
Non, mais sa soeur *est* venue,	No, but his sister did.
J'ai *fait* de grandes promenades,	I took long walks.
Les grandes promenades qu'il à *faites*,	The long walks he took.
Sa figure m'a *semblé* intelligente,	His face seemed intelligent to me.
Les ballons que *j'ai vu* gonfler,	The balloons I saw inflated.
Les ballons que *j'ai vus* s'élever,	The balloons I saw rising.
Je *glisse*, je *tombe*, je me *blesse*,	I slipped, fell, and hurt myself.
Je *viens de* le gronder,	I have just scolded him.
C'*est* votre frère qui tenait l'éponge,	It was your brother who held the sponge.
On part en vacances demain,	The school breaks up tomorrow.
Je le regard*ais* tandis qu'il grimp*ait*,	I watched him as he climbed.
Comme il *grimpait* la branche cassa,	As he was climbing the branch snapped.
Je vous *ai gâté*,	I spoiled you.
Un prophête s'*éleva*,	A prophet arose.
J'avais cru *vous entendre*,	I thought I heard you.
Rentrez sitôt que le clairon *sonnera*,	Come home the moment the bugle blows.

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Il s'impatiente de ce que vous *différiez,*
He is growing impatient at your putting off

Il est douteux que vous *passiez* bien votre examen,
It is doubtful that you will pass your examination.

Est-il possible qu'elle *épouse* cet homme?
Is it possible that she may marry that man?

En admettant que vous *ayez* raison,
Granted that you are right.

Je ne suppose pas qu'il *soit* millionnaire,
I do not suppose that he is a millionaire.

Je n'ai jamais vu de boxeur que *j'aie trouvé* bel homme,
I never saw a pugilist I really thought handsome.

Espère-t-il que je *revienne* cent fois?
Does he expect me to come back a hundred times?

Faudra-t-il que je lui *écrive* vingt fois?
Shall I have to write to him twenty times?

Parlez pour qu'on vous *entende,*
Speak so that you may be heard.

Il entra sans que personne le *remarquât,*
He went in without anybody noticing him.

Avant que le soleil *fût* levé,
Before the sun rose.

L'homme le plus brave que *j'aïe* connu,
The bravest man I ever knew.

S'il entrait un homme qui *portât* des armes,
If a man should come in carrying arms.

Je ne crois pas qu'il *vienne,*
I do not think he is coming.

Je ne croyais pas qu'il *vînt,*	I did not think he was coming.
Je n'aurais pas cru qu'il *fût* venu,	I could not have supposed he would come.
Où *courent-elles?*	Where are they running to?
Se *moque-t-il* de moi?	Is he making fun of me?
Est-ce qu'il se *moque* de moi?	Is he making fun of me?
La partie *commence?*	The game is beginning?
La partie *commence-t-elle?*	Is the game beginning?
Elles *ne courent pas,*	They do not run.
Si *je n'espérais* vous plaire,	If I did not hope to please you.
Ne pas oser c'est ne pas réussir,	Not to dare is not to succeed.
Je *n'entendis rien,*	I heard nothing.
*Pas d'*effort, *pas de* succès,	No effort, no success.

D. CLASSES OF VERBS

PASSIVE

INTRANSITIVE

REFLEXIVE

RECIPROCAL

IMPERSONAL

PASSIVE VERBS

How are French passive verbs conjugated?

Exactly as in English, with the auxiliary TO BE; ex.: IT IS WRITTEN THAT... *il est écrit que*... However, verbs which in English are accompanied by a preposition (TO BE SPOKEN TO, TO BE REPROACHED WITH, etc.) can not be translated literally; the verb has to become transitive with *on* as a subject; ex.: I AM SPOKEN TO, *on me parle;* THE ERRORS YOU WERE REPROACHED WITH, *les fautes qu'on vous reprocha.*

INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. What is the auxiliary used in the past tenses of intransitive verbs in French?

Till the seventeenth century it used to be *avoir,* TO HAVE, as in English, (and even now country people frequently say *j'ai venu,* I HAVE COME, *j'ai monté,* I HAVE WALKED UPSTAIRS) but it is at present *être,* TO BE; ex.: THEY HAD WALKED UPSTAIRS, *ils étaient montés,* BEFORE THEY WENT DOWNSTAIRS, *avant qu'ils ne fussent descendus.*

Note.

The following verbs: *Cesser,* TO CEASE; *coucher,* TO SLEEP; *demeurer,* TO DWELL; *échouer,* TO FAIL; *grandir,* TO GROW UP; *paraître,* TO APPEAR; and *vieillir,* TO GROW OLD, take *avoir.*

2. Is the intransitive verb used as frequently and conveniently in French as in English?

French people who know English can not admire enough the flexibility of our intransitive verbs. An

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REFLEXIVE VERBS

1. Are there more reflexive verbs in French than in English?

Yes.

a) The French language possesses all the verbs which are reflexive in English, that is to say, express that the subject does to himself the action indicated by the verb; ex.: HE OFTEN HURTS HIMSELF WITH THAT KNIFE, *il se blesse souvent avec ce couteau.*

b) Besides these verbs, the boomerang action of which is truly reflexive, the French language possesses a great many other verbs, which in English are intransitive but in French are conjugated with a reflexive pronoun; ex.: I REPENT, *je me repens;* HE REMEMBERS, *il se souvient;* SHE WORRIES, *elle s'inquiète.* These verbs are called pronominal, i.e. conjugated with a pronoun.

2. Conjugate a reflexive verb.

Infinitive,	*Se blesser,*
Part. Pres.,	*Se blessant,*
Past. Part.,	*S'être blessé,*
Indic. Pres.,	*Je me blesse,*
	Tu te blesses,
	Il se blesse
	Nous nous blessons,
	Vous vous blessez,
	Ils se blessent,
Imp.,	*Je me blessais,*
Simple Past,	*Je me blessai,*
Compound Past,	*Je me suis blessé,*
Pluperfect,	*Je m'étais blessé,*

Past Anterior,	*Je me fus blessé,*
Future,	*Je me blesserai,*
Future Anterior,	*Je me serai blessé,*
Cond. Pres.,	*Je me blesserais,*
" Past,	*Je me serais blessé,*
Imperative,	*Que je me blesse,*
	Blesse-toi,
	Qu'il se blesse,
	Blessons-nous,
	Blessez-vous,
	Qu'ils se blessent,
Subj. Pres.,	*Que je me blesse,*
" Imp.,	*Que je me blessasse,*
" Past,	*Que je me sois blessé,*
" Pluperf.,	*Que je me fusse blessé.*

3. What particulars are especially to be noticed in this conjugation?

a) The reflexive verb *se blesser* is conjugated exactly like the transitive verb *blesser*, but preceded by the reflexive pronouns.

b) The auxiliary in the compound tenses is not *avoir* but *être*. I HAVE HURT MYSELF, *je me suis blessé* and not *je m'ai blessé*.

c) In the imperative proper the pronouns are placed after the verb, and *toi* is substituted for *te*.

4. Conjugate *se blesser* interrogatively.

Me blessé-je?
Te blesses-tu?
Se blesse-t-il?
Nous blessons-nous?
Vous blessez-vous?
Se blessent-ils?

Note.

Me blessé-je? in colloquial French is constantly replaced by: *Est-ce que je me blesse?*

5. Are there other verbs, beside the intransitive, that are conjugated like reflexive verbs?

Yes.

a) A few passive verbs; ex.: *ce livre se vend bien* for *est bien vendu,* THIS BOOK IS SOLD A GREAT DEAL; *la maison se bâtit rapidement* for *est bâtie,* THE HOUSE IS BEING BUILT QUICKLY. [The English idioms, THIS BOOK SELLS WELL; THE HOUSE IS BUILDING QUICKLY, are very similar.]

b) Reciprocal verbs, i.e. verbs indicating that two subjects act on each other; ex.: *ils s'injurient,* THEY REVILE EACH OTHER; *les nations balkaniques se haïssent,* THE BALKAN NATIONS HATE ONE ANOTHER.

IMPERSONAL VERBS

1. Conjugate an impersonal verb.

Infinitive,	*Pleuvoir,*	to rain.
Pres. Part.,	*Pleuvant,*	raining.
Past Part.	*Plu,*	rained.
Ind. Pres.,	*Il pleut,*	it rains.
" Imp.,	*Il pleuvait,*	it rained.
Simple Past,	*Il plut,*	it rained.
Comp. Past,	*Il a plu,*	it has rained.
Plup.,	*Il avait plu,*	it had rained.
Past Ant.,	*Il eût plu,*	it had rained, it rained.
Fut.,	*Il pleuvra,*	it will rain.
Fut. Ant.,	*Il aura plu,*	it will have rained.

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Cond. Pres.,	*Il y aurait,*	there would be
" Past,	*Il y aurait eu,*	there would have been
Imp.,	*Qu'il y ait,*	let there be
Sub. Pres.,	*Qu'il y ait*	that there may be
" Imp.,	*Qu'il y eût,*	that there might be
Past,	*Qu'il y ait eu,*	that there may have been
Plup.,	*Qu'il y eût eu,*	that there might have [been

1. *Il y a* is both singular and plural; ex.: THERE IS A MATCH, *il y a un match;* THERE ARE FINE ATHLETES, *il y a de superbes lutteurs.*

2. THERE BEING NO DOCTOR, NO TIME, etc., is translated rather ponderously by *comme il n'y avait pas de médecin, pas assez de temps.*

3. THERE IS NO KNOWING, NO SAYING, etc., is translated by *on ne peut savoir, on ne peut dire,* or *il n'y a pas moyen de savoir, pas moyen de dire.*

4. Does not *il y a* frequently occur in sentences which in English do not include *there is*?

Yes, *il y a* constantly appears;

a) in speaking of distances; ex.: *Y a-t-il loin?* IS IT FAR? *Il y a cinq heures (de chemin de fer) entre New York et Washington,* IT IS FIVE HOURS' RIDE FROM NEW YORK TO WASHINGTON;

b) in speaking of time; ex.:

IT IS A MONTH SINCE HE SAILED, *il y a un mois qu'il a pris le bateau;*

HE SAILED A MONTH AGO, *il a pris le bateau il y a un mois.*

Note.

When an action is still in progress, the French use the present to translate the past in English; ex.: I HAVE WAITED or I HAVE BEEN WAITING A MONTH FOR THAT MAN, ***il y a un mois que j'attends cet homme,*** or *voici un mois que j'attends cet homme*, or *j'attends cet homme depuis un mois.*

Idioms: il va y avoir un mois que, IT WILL SOON BE A MONTH SINCE, *qu'y a-t-il?* WHAT IS THE MATTER?

5. Conjugate *falloir.*

Inf.,	*Falloir,*	to be necessary
Ind. Pres.,	*Il faut,*	it is necessary
" Imp.,	*Il fallait,*	it was necessary
Simple Past,	*Il fallut,*	it was necessary
Comp., "	*Il a fallu,*	it has been necessary
Plup.,	*il avait fallu,*	it had been necessary
Past. Ant.,	*Il eut fallu,*	it had been necessary
Fut.,	*Il faudra,*	it will be necessary
" Ant.,	*Il aura fallu,*	it will have been necessary
Cond. Pres.,	*Il faudrait,*	it would be necessary
" Past,	*Il aurait fallu,*	it would have been necessary
Subj. Pres.,	*Qu'il faille,*	that it may be necessary
" Imp.,	*Qu'il fallût,*	that it might be necessary
" Past,	*Qu'il ait fallu,*	that it may have been necessary
Plup.,	*Qu'il eût fallu,*	that it might have been necessary

Note.

1. Not only TO BE NECESSARY, but the verbs MUST, TO HAVE TO, and OUGHT are translated by *falloir,* which in consequence is probably the most used French verb; ex.: I MUST LEAVE YOU, *il faut que je vous quitte;* MUST YOU GO? *faut-il que vous partiez?* I HAD TO TELL HIM; *il fallut que je lui dise.*

Devoir, it is true, is also used in sentences like the foregoing, but it only indicates a probability; ex.: WE ARE TO GO TO SEAL HARBOR IN AUGUST, *nous devons aller à Seal Harbor au mois d'août.*

2. Remember that the verb following FALLOIR is invariably in the subjunctive: *je pars, il faut que je parte,* I AM LEAVING, I MUST BE LEAVING. (*je pars* = indic.; *que je parte* = subj.)

6. What is the meaning of *il me faut*?

I WANT or I NEED, ex.: *il me faut un meilleur dictionnaire,* I WANT, or I NEED A BETTER DICTIONARY.

7. What is the meaning of *il le faut*?

IT IS NECESSARY; ex.: *partez à l'instant, il le faut absolument,* LEAVE AT ONCE, IT IS ABSOLUTELY NECESSARY; *nous reculâmes, nous vîmes bien qu'il le fallait,* WE FELL BACK, WE FOUND IT WAS NECESSARY.

8. Analyse the sentence: *il va falloir partir.*

Translate word for word:

il va	=	it is going
falloir	=	to be necessary
partir	=	to go

So *il va falloir partir* = IT IS GOING TO BE NECESSARY TO GO, or I, WE, YOU WILL SOON HAVE TO GO.

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I must / I ought to / I have to hurry	*il faut que* je me dépêche
Were you not to go to camp?	Ne *deviez-vous* pas aller au camp?
I wanted a kit	Il *me fallait* un trousseau
Sell the horse it is necessary / you must	Vendez le cheval, *il le faut*
It is going to be necessary to pay.	*Il va falloir* payer

VI

ADVERBS

1. What French adverbs correspond to our adverbs ending in *ly?*

There are as many French adverbs in MENT as there are English adverbs in LY and they generally correspond; ex.: POLITELY, *poliment* (in a polite manner). GRAVELY, *gravement,* GAILY, *gaiement.*

Note.

Ment (Latin *mente*) was a feminine ending in old French as in Latin. Hence the feminine E inserted before *ment* in adverbs like *fort-e-ment,* STRONGLY. In a few adverbs this E becomes É; ex.: *obscur-é-ment,* OBSCURELY.

2. Can French adjectives be used as adverbs?

Yes, BON, CHER, DROIT, FAUX, HAUT, JUSTE, LONG, NET, RAS, and VITE, are frequently used adverbially. Notice that these words are monosyllables like most English adjectives (RIGHT, DEAR, STRAIGHT, HIGH, LONG, etc.) used adverbially.

3. What is the French for *better* used adverbially?

MIEUX (and not MEILLEUR); ex.: HE IS MUCH BETTER, *il va beaucoup mieux.*

4. What difference is there between *comme* and *comment?*

COMME is never used interrogatively; ex.: HOW ARE YOU? *comment allez-vous?* and COMMENT is never used in an exclamation; ex.: HOW WELL YOU ARE! *comme vous allez bien!*

5. What is the position of adverbs in French?

French adverbs are always placed after the verb, and we ought to remember that they can never be placed as in English between the auxiliary and the past participle; ex.: I SEE CLEARLY, *je vois clairement,* I HAVE REPEATEDLY TOLD YOU, *je vous ai dit fréquemment.*

BIEN, SOUVENT, and RAREMENT are the only exceptions in the compound past; ex.: I SLEPT WELL, *j'ai bien dormi;* I OFTEN NOTICED, *j'ai souvent observé.*

ASSEZ is placed before the noun; ex.: BREAD ENOUGH, *assez de pain.*

6. Underline the most commonly used adverbs in the following list:

A. ADVERBS OF QUALITY:

assez, enough
autant, as much, as many
beaucoup, } much
bien, } many
combien, how much, how many?
davantage, more
moins, less
peu, little, not much, few
plus, more
tant, so much, as much
trop; too much
un peu, a little, a few

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C. *ADVERBS OF PLACE*:

ailleurs, elsewhere
alentour, autour, around
autre part, elsewhere
céans (archaic) within
çà et là, here and there
dedans, within
dehors, outside
derrière, behind
dessus, above
dessous, below
d'où, whence, where from?
en arrière, behind
ici, here
là, there
loin, far
nulle part, nowhere
où, where?
partout, everywhere
par où, which way?
près, near
quelque part, somewhere
y, there.

D. *ADVERBS OF MANNER*:

ainsi, so
à peine, hardly
assez, sufficiently
aussi, (also) as
autant, as, as much
beaucoup, much
bien, much, very
combien, how much? how?
comme, how! as, as it were
comment, how?
davantage, more
de même, likewise
encore, still, even (with comparative.)
ensemble, together
fort, very
guère (with *ne*), hardly
mal, mis—, in— un—
même, even
moins, less
nullement (*ne*), in no way
on ne peut plus, extremely
peu, not very, in—, un—
plus, more
plutôt, rather
pourquoi, why?
presque, almost
quelque, about
quelque peu, somewhat
quelque . . . que, however
si, so, as
surtout, above all, especially
tant, so, so much
tellement, so
tout, quite, however (*que*)
très, very
trop, too, too much
un peu, somewhat, to some extent
trop peu, too little

E. ADVERBS CONNECTING CLAUSES:

ainsi, } so, accordingly
aussi, }
car, for
cependant, however, yet
d'ailleurs, besides
donc, then, therefore
du reste, at the same time
mais, but
néanmoins, nevertheless
nonobstant, notwithstanding
or, now
par conséquent, consequently.
partant, therefore, hence
pourtant, still, yet
toutefois, all the same
toujours, still

7. What is the meaning of *donc?*

DONC really means THEREFORE and is frequently used in that sense; ex.: THEREFORE I WILL STAY HERE, *donc, je reste ici;* it often means SO, IF SO, and in this connection is easily replaced by ALORS; ex.: SO, IF SO, HE IS CRAZY, *il est donc fou* or *alors, il est fou.*

Finally it is constantly heard as an expletive recalling JUST in English; ex.: JUST COME HERE, *venez donc!* JUST HOLD YOUR TONGUE, *taisez-vous donc!* JUST LISTEN, *écoutez donc!*

Allons donc! is the equivalent of NONSENSE and *dites donc!* the equivalent of I SAY.

Note.

The final C in DONC is sounded when the meaning is THEREFORE or SO; it is mute in other cases, because the word becomes little more than an exclamation.

8. What difference is there between *si* and *oui*?

SI, or SI, SI, or MAIS SI are used in sentences more or less sharply contradicting a denial and corresponding to OH YES! or WHY, YES! Ex.: "HE IS NOT ILL"—"WHY, YES, HE IS", *"il n'est pas malade."—"Si, il l'est; mais si, il l'est!*

PREPOSITIONS

1. Give a list of French prepòsitions.

à, to, at
après, after
avant, before (time, order)
avec, with
chez, at, or to the house of
contre, against
dans, in, into
de, of, from
depuis, since, from
derrière. behind
dès, as early as
devant, before
en, in, into
entre, between, among
envers, towards
hors, except
outre, besides
malgré, in spite of
par, by, through
parmi, among
pour, for
sans, without
selon, according to
sous, under
sur, upon
vers, towards

2. Give a list of other words and phrases used as prepositions.

à bas de, down from
à cause de, because of
à côté de, beside
à (au) défaut de, failing
à force de, by dint of
à moins de, short of
à travers, } through
au travers de, }
en arrière de, behind
en avant de, in front of
en bas de, at the bottom of
en dépit de, in spite of
en raison de, according to
excepté, except
faute de, for want of
hormis, except

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VIII

CONJUNCTIONS

1. How are conjunctions classified?

Conjunctions are a) coordinative, i.e. connecting clauses which might be left separate; ex: HE IS RICH, BUT HE IS STUPID; b) subordinative, i.e, connecting two clauses one of which would be incomplete without the other; ex.: HE WROTE THAT I MIGHT BE INFORMED.

BUT is a coordinative, and THAT a subordinative conjunction in these sentences.

2. Give a list of coordinative conjunctions.

et,	and
et... et,	both... and
ou,	or,
ou... ou,	either... or
ni,	nor
ni... ni,	neither...nor (requires *ne*, with the first verb)
mais,	but
que,	than, as

3. Give a list of the real subordinative conjunctions.

There are only four:

que	that
si	if
comme	as
quand	when

4. Give a list of the conjunctions including *que*.

a) Governing the indicative.

1. Temporal

lorsque, / or *quand,* } when
après que, after
avant que, before
aussitôt que, as soon as
dès que, } from the moment / when, as soon as
depuis que, since
à peine... que, scarcely... when
tandis que, / *pendant que,* } while
tant que, as long as
en attendant que, / *jusqu'à ce que,* } until

Note.

EN ATTENDANT QUE and JUSQU'À CE QUE, UNTIL, govern the subjunctive.

2. Causal

parce que, because
puisque, since
attendu que, / *vu que,* } seeing that
comme, as, inasmuch as

3. Comparative

à mesure que, / *à proportion que,* } in proportion as
ainsi que, as

loin que, far from
selon que, } according as
suivant que, }
de même que, just as
comme, as

b) Governing the subjunctive.

1. Final

afin que, in order that
de crainte que, lest
de peur que, lest
pour que, in order that

2. Consecutive

de manière que, so that
de sorte que, so that
de façon que, so that
sans que, without

3. Concessive.

quoique, } though
bien que, }
encore que, even though
malgré que } even though
nonobstant que, }
soit que... soit que, whether.... or
quand, quand même, (with conditional) even though

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EXCLAMATIONS

Most exclamations can not be translated literally. They can be learned with the greatest ease by conversation, but their use is divined rather than explained.

In French, as in English, exclamations constantly become obsolete and are replaced by others. *Morbleu! tudieu! palsambleu! mordieu!* etc., are still read, but they are never heard.

The following exclamations are the most frequently heard:

TO CALL SOMEBODY:

Oh! — ho! holloa!
ohé! Eh! là bas! — holloa, you over there!
allô! (at the telephone) — hello!
Dites donc, là bas! — I say, you over there!

TO AFFIRM:

Bien sûr! — certainly!
Sûrement, — certainly!
Assurément, — undoubtedly!
Certes! certes oui — yes, yes indeed!
Sur ma foi! — upon my faith!
Ma parole d'honneur! — upon my word of honor!
Parfaitement! — I mean it, absolutely!
Naturellement! — of course!
Dame! (to one's self) — of course!
Tenez — Ecoutez! — Look here! Listen!

To admit:

Très bien, fort bien! — granted!
Soit! — granted!
À la bonne heure! — that's right! well and good
À merveille! — quite right
Sans doute! — naturally
Juste! — right!
Entendu! — I agree, all right.
Bon! — all right.
Convenu! — agreed, all right
Parfait! — I fully agree
Ma foi! — after all (you are right.)
Va pour (*le théâtre, le cercle,* etc.) — the theatre, the club, by all means!

To admit with satisfaction:

Pour sûr! — of course!
Je crois bien! — I should say so!
Je vous crois! — rather!
Dame! — of course!

To contradict:

Pardon! — I beg your pardon
du tout, pas du tout, — not at all
pas le moins du monde, — not in the least
allons donc! — nonsense!
jamais! — never!
Allons! allons! — come, come!
jamais de la vie! — never in the world
certes non! — no, indeed!
Pensez donc! — just think!
chut! — mum! hush!
taisez-vous! — hold your tongue!
silence — silence!

TO DENOTE SURPRISE:

Bah! — bah!
Vraiment! — really!
Tiens! — really!
Sapristi! — by Jove!
Pas possible! — impossible, you don't say so!
Quel conte! quelle histoire! — Tell it to the marines!
Diàntre!, *Fichtre!*, *Bigre!* — the deuce!

TO DENOTE EMBARRASSMENT:

Diable! — the déuce!
Mais!... — why!...
Hum!... — H'm!
Voyons, voyons! — Let me see!
Attendez un peu! — wait a minute!

WHEN SHOCKED:

Mon Dieu! — Dear me!
Que dites-vous là? — you don't mean it!
Horreur! — shocking!
C'*est affreux!* — horrible!

TO WARN:

Attention! — careful!
Gare! — look out!

TO ENCOURAGE:

Va (ex.: *ça ira, va*)—it will be all right! you'll see
Vive...! — hurrah for...! Long live...!
Allons y! — go ahead!
Marche! — go ahead!

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GALLICISMS

GALLICISMS

The ways of speaking or phrasing peculiar to the French language are called Gallicisms. The following are the most frequent Gallicisms arranged in the order of the parts of speech.

The *only way* to make oneself familiar with these idioms is to examine the examples carefully and imitate them in short simple sentences of one's own.

DEFINITE ARTICLE

1. He broke his arm,
   Il s'est cassé le bras.

   Possessive adjectives are replaced by the definite article before nouns indicating the parts of the body.

2. He has a small head,
   Il a la tête petite.

   The indefinite article is also replaced by the definite in the same case.

3. We paid ten cents a dozen for eggs,
   On payait les œufs dix sous la douzaine

   The indefinite article is also replaced by the definite in sentences indicating prices or frequency (twice a week, *deux fois la semaine*).

4. I come from France, I am going to Canada,
   J'arrive de France, je vais au Canada.

   Logically we should say: *j'arrive de la France*, but the definite article is left out before names of countries IN THE FEMININE.

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2. To drink good coffee; we drank good coffee,
Boire de bon café; nous avons bu du bon café.
The partitive is DE when the meaning is general; it becomes DU the moment an individual action is recorded.

3. Nothing more tedious,
Rien de plus ennuyeux.
DE is added before a comparative.

NOUN

1. Passengers are requested to lower their heads,
Les voyageurs sont priés de baisser la tête.
The French, bearing in mind the individual, often use the singular where English-speaking people, seeing the collectivity, use the plural.

2. You little silly!
Petit sot!
YOU preceding a vocative is left out in French.

3. Mr. X. is away; this gentleman says...
Monsieur est absent; monsieur dit...
Servants speak of their master as MONSIEUR; used by other people it is more polite than CE MONSIEUR.

ADJECTIVE

1. A navy blue gown,
Une robe bleu-marine.
Compound adjectives indicating colors are invariable (BLEU instead of BLEUE).

2. A scanty dinner, a fish dinner,
Un maigre dîner, un dîner maigre.

In a few cases, which usage teaches easily, the meaning of the words varies according to the place of the adjective.

3. He is remarkably stupid!
Il est d'un bête!

Adjectives are frequently used instead of nouns in familiar exclamations; however *il est d'une bêtise!* is also frequent.

4. Your aunt.
Mademoiselle votre tante.

French politeness still insists on softening the possessive adjective by a title when you speak to a person of a member of his family.

5. The more he says, the less I believe him,
Plus il parle, moins je le crois.

The definite article is omitted in the double comparative.

6. The same words, the very words,
Les mêmes mots, les mots mêmes.

MÊME meaning SAME always precedes the noun; meaning VERY it follows it.

Note.

MÊME, an adjective, ought not to be confused with MÊME, an adverb meaning *even*, or with LUI-MÊME, *himself;* ex.: *Même mon chien ne me reconnut pas,* EVEN MY DOG DID NOT KNOW ME; *mon chien même ne me reconnut pas,* MY VERY DOG DID NOT KNOW ME.

7. Such a swimmer,
Un tel nageur.

TEL in French takes the place of an ordinary adjective (comp. *un bon nageur*).

Idiom—TEL QUEL or TELLE QUELLE, means AS HE, SHE, or IT IS; ex.: *je prendrai la maison telle quelle,* I WILL TAKE THE HOUSE AS IT IS.

8. The other day, the summer before last,
L'autre jour, l'autre été.

L'AUTRE JOUR only means a recent date, L'AUTRE ÉTÉ means the summer before last (as in English EVERY OTHER YEAR).

9. Every man, on every occasion,
Tout homme, en toute occasion.

TOUT meaning EVERY or ALL can take the feminine like any other adjective.

The whole of Rome was there,
Tout Rome y était.

When TOUT means THE WHOLE OF a city it is invariable.

Elles étaient toutes honteuses,
They were quite ashamed.

Singularly enough QUITE, an adverb, is translated by *tout,* adjective, which is variable.

PRONOUNS

a) Personal pronouns.

1. I love and revere him,
Je l'aime et le révère.

The personal pronoun is not repeated before the second verb when its meaning is somewhat similar to that of the first.

Note.

The same suppression is frequent in legal formulas; ex.: *je donne et lègue,* I WILL AND BEQUEATH.

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YOUR MAJESTY; *Votre Altesse,* YOUR HIGHNESS; *Votre Grandeur,* YOUR GRACE.

6. He took his stick and began to use it...

Il te prend son bâton et s'en sert...

VOUS or TE are frequently used pleonastically in vivid narrations (cf. YOUR American thinks nothing of a thousand mile trip).

7. Seeing a drum he sat on it,

Voyant un tambour il s'assit dessus.

IT is frequently left untranslated after a preposition.

Use of MOI and LUI:

1. He looks at me, look at me.

Il me regarde, regardez-moi.

The English pronoun ME is always translated by ME preceding the verb, except in the imperative, where it is translated by MOI following the verb.

Note.

Even in the imperative ME is translated by *me* when there is a negation; ex.: DO NOT LOOK AT ME, *ne me regardez pas.*

2. He speaks to me, speak to me,

Il me parle, parlez-moi.

TO ME is translated by ME, except in the imperative unaccompanied by a negation, where it is translated by MOI (not *à moi*).

Note.

TO ME is translated by *à moi* only after verbs denoting motion; ex.: HE CAME TO ME, *il vint à moi.*

3. Bring that book to him, take it away from him,
Apportez lui ce livre, reprenez-le lui.
LUI translates both TO HIM and FROM HIM.

4. Let him do as he pleases,
Laissez lui faire ce qui lui plaît.
HIM is translated by LUI instead of LE, (ex.: *laissez le faire*) when the verb following HIM is completed by a clause.

5. I saw him do wonders,
Je lui ai vu faire des merveilles.
LUI is also used instead of LE when the sentence denotes admiration or contempt.

Idioms—*chez lui,* at his home,
des idées à lui, ideas of his own,
c'est mal à lui, it is wrong of him.

REPETITION OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns are frequently repeated in French in the following cases:

1. to show distinction; ex.:
Our maid who (better than the others) knew the road,
Notre bonne qui, elle, connaissait le chemin.

2. in emphasis; ex.:
What gives us Americans the right to say...
Ce qui nous donne à nous Américains le droit de dire...

3. in explanation; ex.:
War had impoverished both of us.
La guerre nous avait appauvris, lui et moi.

LE, LA, LES, AS PRONOUNS:

1. Are you the queen? Yes, I am (she).
Êtes-vous la reine? Oui, je la suis.
Are you the doctors? Yes, we are,
Êtes-vous les médecins? Oui, nous les sommes.
When the meaning of the sentence points more to an individual than to his quality LE, LA, LES are used according to the gender and number.
2. Are you a queen? Yes, I am (one),
Êtes-vous reine? Oui, je le suis.
Are you doctors? Yes we are,
Êtes-vous médecins? Oui, nous le sommes.
When, on the contrary, quality is emphasized in the question, only LE is used in the answer.
3. Pleonastic use of LE:
Jealous she was and she will be,
Jalouse elle l'était et le sera.
As much as I can (do so), I help the poor
Autant que je le puis, j'aide les malheureux.
LE in the first sentence repeats JALOUSE and in the second it sums up AIDER LES MALHEUREUX.

Idioms—*Le céder,* to give in
L'emporter, to conquer
L'échapper belle, to have a narrow escape
Le disputer à, to vie with.
This usage recalls English phrases like TO ROUGH IT, TO THINK IT BETTER TO, in which IT is also pleonastic.

Pleonastic use of EN:

1. Rich he does not seem to be,
Riche? il n'en a pas l'air.
EN in this sentence stands for *être riche.*

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5. What caused his loss was his avarice,
Ce qui LE PERDIT *ce fut son avarice.*
CE in CE FUT is pleonastic; frequent in sentences beginning with *ce qui, ce que.*

6. That class has no respect for anybody
Cela ne respecte personne.
CELA is often used colloquially in speaking of people one scorns, even where only one person is meant.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

1. He who breaks pays
Qui casse paie.
CELUI QUI is frequently found shortened into QUI in proverbs coined at a time when this was the usual way of speaking.

2. And what is worse....
Et qui pis est.
CE QUI is also abbreviated into QUI, a terse usage.
Idiom: *Voilà qui est parler*
That is speaking

3. They flocked in, some from the North, others from the South.
Ils arrivèrent en foule, qui du Nord, qui du Midi.
QUI.... QUI *instead of les uns.... les autres* imparts charming vivacity to the sentence.

4. The tutor of that boy who used to bore us.
Le précepteur de ce garçon, lequel nous ennuyait souvent.
LEQUEL instead of QUI leaves no doubt that the boring person was the boy, whereas QUI would be ambiguous.

5. The difficulties with which we then struggled....
Les difficultés où nous nous débattions alors....
où, instead of AVEC LEQUEL or DANS LEQUEL, is a terse usage frequent in the best writers.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

On

1. What you conceive clearly can also be expressed clearly.
Ce que l'on conçoit bien s'énonce clairement.
L'on is a shade more dignified than on, and is also used to avoid a harsh hiatus, (ex.: *où on*).

2. Coming!
On y va!
On is colloquially used for je or nous.

3. Once more you don't know your lesson, be careful!
On ne sait pas encore sa leçon, qu'on fasse attention!
On is used instead of vous in reproach or menace.

4. *N*obody could be wittier
On n'a pas plus d'esprit.
Idioms of this kind always denote superlative admiration or irritation; ex.: *on n'est pas plus bête,* ONE COULD NOT BE MORE STUPID.

Tel:

Many a man shines in a subordinate position who seems dull in a higher one
Tel brille au second rang qui s'éclipse au premier.
Tel in proverbial sentences is often used where English would use HE WHO, MANY A MAN, etc.

CHACUN:

Every body knows
Chacun sait.
CHACUN translates both, EVERY ONE, and EACH ONE. It is always used as a pronoun, the corresponding adjective being CHAQUE.

AUTRUI:

We must think of our neighbor,
Il faut penser à autrui.
AUTRUI (lat. *alterum*) is never used as a subject and is only found in general sentences.

VERB

Inversion of Subject:

The French language inverts the subject as we do in English in two cases:

1. In indirect questions, ex.: ASK YOURSELF WHAT MIGHT BE YOUR SITUATION, IF..., *demandez-vous ce que pourrait être votre situation si..*

2. In sentences beginning by *à peine,* HARDLY; *non seulement,* NOT ONLY; *en vain,* IN VAIN; *à plus forte raison,* EVEN WITH BETTER CAUSE; and *de là,* HENCE, when these words begin a sentence, ex.: HARDLY WERE WE OUT AT SEA, *à peine fûmes-nous hors du port.*
The French language also inverts the subject in the following cases where we do not invert it in English:

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MANY, ex.: MOST OF THEM SURRENDERED, *la plupart se rendirent.*

4. After collective nouns in the singular when the action of the individuals is seen separately, ex.: *une troupe de nymphes nageaient,* A BAND OF NYMPHS WERE SWIMMING; when the action is seen collectively the verb is in the singular, ex.: *une troupe de soldats arriva,* A BAND OF SOLDIERS ARRIVED.

The verb is in the singular although the subject is in the plural in the following cases:

1. After *ce qui,* ex.: WHAT ARE KNOWN AS THE MEDIEVAL EPICS, *ce qui est connu sous le nom d'épopées du Moyen-Age.*

2. After *le peu de,* ex.: WHAT FEW PEOPLE HE SEES BORE HIM, *le peu de gens qu'il voit l'ennuient.*

USE OF TENSES

Indicative: If he comes and if he should tell you, *S'il vient et qu'il vous dise.*

The two verbs would be in the indicative if SI were the only preposition used (*s'il vient et s'il vous dit*); but the introduction of *que* meaning *supposé que* makes the use of the subjunctive a necessity with the second verb.

Conditional: You might look twenty times, you would see nothing.

Vous regarderiez vingt fois, vous ne verriez rien.

Probabilities are marked very logically by the conditional.

Present Participle: This tense seems very ponderous to the French and they avoid it as much as they can. The same tense in English is, on the contrary, very convenient and frequently used.

1. The participles BEING or FEELING so often placed at the beginning of an English sentence disappear in French, ex.: FEELING SURE THAT YOU WOULD SUCCEED I CAME, *Sûr que vous réussiriez j'arrivai.*

2. Many English present participles are translated by past participles in French (lying, sitting, standing, kneeling, etc.), ex.: LYING AT THE MOUTH OF THE LOIRE, SAINT *N*AZAIRE OUGHT TO BE A LARGE PORT, *Situé à l'embouchure de la Loire, Saint-Nazaire devrait être un grand port.*

Infinitive: 1. One of the characteristics of the French language is the constant use of the infinitive. In the following sentence: *j'espère pouvoir venir apporter mon concours à votre œuvre,* I HOPE I CAN COME AND GIVE MY ASSISTANCE TO YOUR WORK, there are three infinitives in succession, almost an impossibility in English.

2. On the other hand the English construction imitated from the Latin: "HE WANTED ME TO BE A SAILOR" is no longer in use in modern French, and the translation runs: *il voulait que je sois marin.*

3. In the numerous instances in which a present participle follows TO SEE and TO HEAR in English the

French substitutes an infinitive for the participle, ex.: I HEARD HIM WHISTLING, *je l'entendis siffler.*

Note.

When a graphic effect is intended the present participle is retained, ex.: I COULD SEE HIM HOPPING ROUND, *je le voyais là sautillant.*

4. French infinitives frequently replace English nouns, ex.: THE TALENT FOR ORGANIZATION, *le talent d'organiser;* HIS CAPACITY FOR CONDENSATION, *son aptitude à condenser.*

PREPOSITIONS BEFORE AN INFINITIVE

Examine carefully the following sentences:

1. Come and tell me,	*Venez raconter* (no prep.)
2. He hopes to come,	*Il espère venir* (no prep.)
3. He asks to come,	*Il demande à venir* (*à*)
4. I shall do my best to come,	*Je ferai mon possible pour venir* (*pour*)
5. He will try to come,	*Il essaiera de venir* (*de*)

You will find that the infinitive in the French sentences 1 and 2 is not preceded by any preposition, whereas in the French sentences 3, 4, and 5, the infinitive is preceded by À, POUR, DE.

Now in the corresponding English sentences the second verb is almost always preceded by TO, and the question is for an English-speaking person how to know, 1: when the French preposition ought to be left out, and 2: in what case TO ought to be translated by À, DE, POUR.

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I am ready (to do what?) to follow their example.
Je suis prêt (à *quoi faire?*) *à suivre leur exemple.*

3. After AVOIR, ex.:
J'ai à vous dire que
I have to tell you that...

4. After nouns which in English are followed by IN, ex.:
I take pleasure in informing you
J'ai plaisir à vous apprendre.

BY POUR:

The infinitive is preceded by POUR:

1. When the corresponding English sentence would contain FOR, ex.:
He was punished for being too wise
Il a été puni pour avoir été trop sage.
He passes for a learned man
Il passe pour savant.

2. When TO in the English sentence means IN ORDER TO, and generally when a definite purpose is indicated, ex.:
Open the window to cool the room
Ouvrez la fenêtre pour rafraîchir la chambre.

3. After TROP and ASSEZ, ex.:
Too proud to fight
Trop fier pour se battre.

BY *DE*:

The French infinitive is, nine times out of ten, preceded by DE which in most cases is a mere link

and has no more meaning than TO has in English. However, it is advisable to state that DE will be found chiefly in the following cases:

1. Wherever OF would be used in English after a noun or an adjective, ex.:

The duty of educating the nation,
Le devoir d'instruire la nation.
I am doubtful of succeeding...
Je ne suis pas sûr de réussir.

Note.

There are but few adjectives governing OF, but there are a great many nouns in English which do so and there are even more in French. Hence, the number of compound prepositions derived from a noun and ending by DE,, ex.: *afin de*, IN ORDER TO, *à moins de*, UNLESS, *faute de*, IN DEFAULT OF, *au point de*, TO THE EXTENT OF, etc.

2. When the first verb can be decomposed into a verb and a noun, ex.:

He advised me to live on a ranch,
(decompose: He gave me the advice)
Il me conseilla de vivre dans une ferme.

3. After impersonal verbs beginning by IL, neuter, ex.:

Il importe de comprendre
It is important to understand.
Il est dur d'être exilé
It is hard to live in exile.
C'est beaucoup de savoir un métier
It is a fine thing to know a trade.

4. DE is frequently used instead of PAR: ex.:
précédé de musiciens, PRECEDED BY MUSICIANS;
amusé de ses réparties, AMUSED BY HIS REPARTEES.

Note.

In numerous cases no definite rule can be given for the use of DE; but an instinct is soon developed in the student who feels that when Á or POUR would be out of place DE is the right preposition. Ex.: YOU WERE KIND TO WRITE ME, *Vous avez été aimable de m'écrire;* I WAS WRONG TO STAY, *J'ai eu tort de rester.*

REMARKS ON A FEW VERBS

FAIRE.

Conjugation.

Ind. pres.	*Je fais*
Imp.	*Je faisais*
Simple past	*Je fis*
Compound past	*J'ai fait*
Future	*Je ferai*
Condit.	*Je ferais*
Imper.	*Fais*
Subj.	*Que je fasse*
Imp.	*Que je fisse*

1. FAIRE is the most frequent French verb: it translates not only TO MAKE, (TO MAKE A SPEECH, *faire un discours*) and TO DO (TO DO NOTHING, *ne rien faire*) but also the following verbs:
TO ORDER, ex.: he ordered him to run, *il le fit courir,*
TO BID, ex.: he bade me repeat, *il me fit répéter,*
TO LET, ex.: I shall let you know, *je vous ferai savoir,*
TO CAUSE, ex.: he caused him to be removed, *il le fit éloigner,*
TO GET, ex.: he got him appointed, *il le fit nommer,*
TO HAVE, ex.: he had him sentenced, *il le fit condamner,*

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5. I am going to have another coat made for me,
Je vais me faire faire un autre pardessus.

The combination *faire faire* which sounds so strange to English ears is constant when MADE follows an object governed by one of the verbs TO HAVE, TO GET, TO CAUSE.

It goes without saying that if another participle takes the place of MADE, the second *faire* is replaced by the infinitive of that participle, ex: I AM GOING TO HAVE MY HAIR CUT, *je vais me faire couper les cheveux.*

Idioms. 1. *Il ne fait que fumer,*
He does nothing except smoke.

2. *Je ne fais que d'arriver,*
I have only just arrived.

3. *Vous avez beau faire,*
Do what you will.

4. *Ne faites pas le modeste,*
Do not act the modest man.

5. *Fais le beau, toutou,*
Beg, Doggie.

ALLER.

1. I will soon call on you,
Je vais bientôt aller vous voir.
ALLER is frequently used to denote the future.

2. I have been there twice,
J'y ai été or *j'y suis allé deux fois.*
ALLER has two compound pasts: *j'ai été* and *je suis allé* (note the different auxiliary).

3. You go round saying...
Vous allez partout disant....
A charmingly vivacious construction in French, both colloquial and literary.

4. The wood became thicker and thicker,
Le bois allait en s'épaississant.
Progress is often marked by ALLER, followed by the present participle.

VOULOIR.

1. VOULOIR is frequent in French as it translates not only WILL, but also WISH, WANT, INTEND, MEAN, TRY, ex.:
I WILL NOT go there,
Je ne veux pas y aller.
What do you WISH?
Que voulez-vous?
HE INTENDS to live abroad,
Il veut vivre à l'étranger.
HE TRIED to make his escape,
Il voulut s'échapper.

Note.

The phrase *je veux* sounds unpleasantly dictatorial in French and is avoided by well-bred people. So we must be careful not to acquire the habit of using it as a mere translation of the future, or even of I WANT or I WISH. I WANT YOU TO BE HERE AT TWO, will be best translated by *Je désire que vous soyez ici à deux heures,* even speaking to an inferior, or simply by the imperative: *Soyez ici à deux heures,* which is perfectly polite.

2. Please remember me to your father,
Veuillez me rappeler au souvenir de votre père.

PLEASE is translated either by *veuillez* (placed at the beginning of the sentence) or by *s'il vous plaît* (placed after the principal verb.)

3. I should like you to understand,
Je voudrais que vous compreniez.
I SHOULD LIKE is translated by *je voudrais.*
Je voudrais is also the proper translation for I WISH in such phrases as I WISH YOU WOULD or I WISH YOU WERE.

4. Will you have a cup of camomile tea?
Voulez-vous une tasse de camomille?
VOULOIR is frequently used as a transitive verb [*il veut de l'argent, il veut du plaisir*].
Proverb—*Vouloir c'est pouvoir.*
Where there's a will there's a way.

ADVERB

A PEINE SI:

He is no scholar, he is hardly educated,
Il n'est pas savant, à peine s'il a quelque instruction.
A peine si or *c'est à peine si* has the meaning of HARDLY.
A synonym is *tout au plus*, AT MOST, after which the subject is inverted (*tout au plus a-t-il quelque instruction*).

COMBIEN:

COMBIEN translates several English words:
1. How much? Ex.: How much is it?
Combien est-ce?

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3. After *que ne,* in exclamations.
Ex.: *Que ne m'appelait-il!*
Why did he not call me!

Note.

After *pas davantage,* NEITHER, the subject is inverted.
Ex.: *pas davantage ne songea-t-il à m'appeler,*
NEITHER DID HE THINK OF CALLING ME.

PEU:

PEU, an adverb, means HARDLY:
Peu préparé à être officier,
Hardly qualified to be an officer.

PAR OÙ?

PAR OÙ? means WHICH WAY?
Ex.: Which way did he go out?
Par où est-il sorti?

PRÈS:

PRÈS means NEAR,
à beaucoup près } mean FAR FROM IT,
or *tant s'en faut* }
pas à beacoup près means NOT NEARLY.

PREPOSITIONS

À This preposition (Lat. AD, Eng. AT) is generally prefixed to names of places, but is also found before names of time.
A and AT exactly correspond in the following cases:

1. before names of towns, ex.: AT EXETER, *à Exeter;* AT MARSEILLES, *à Marseille;*

2. before names of places, not towns, where one stays or goes habitually, ex.:
   at school, *à l'école, au collège,*
   at church, *à l'église,*
   at the office, *au bureau.*

Note.

À is also used before nouns generally preceded by IN in English when a habit is suggested: for instance, we say of a forester: *il travaille au bois,* HE WORKS IN THE WOOD, because he works there habitually; but of a writer: *il travaille dans le bois,* HE IS WORKING IN THE WOOD, because the writer only works accidentally in the wood.

3. In many phrases stating an occasion or a state, ex.: at the thought of, *à la pensée de,*
   at work, *au travail,*
   at attention, *au garde à vous.*

4. before names of church or other festivals, before hours, and before *automne,* AUTUMN, and *printemps,* SPRING (*été,* summer, and *hiver,* winter, are preceded by *en*). Ex.:
   at Easter, *à Pâques,*
   at night, *au soir,*
   at ten o'clock, *à dix heures,*
   in the fall, *à l'automne.*

Note.

Names of European countries are all feminine, with two exceptions, Danemark (Denmark) and Portugal. All of them, including these two masculine nouns, are preceded by *en,* ex.: IN RUSSIA, *en Russie;* IN PORTUGAL, *en Portugal.*

Names of countries outside Europe are preceded by *en* when they are feminine, ex.: IN CALIFORNIA, EN *Californie*; they are preceded by *au* when they are masculine, ex.: IN CANADA, *au Canada.* However, we should say, *dans le Connecticut, dans le Massachusetts.*

DANS, EN:

1. The distinction made above between *à* and *dans* obtains between *dans* and *en*: *dans* suggests a transient, *en* a permanent action, ex.:

to drive, *aller en voiture,*
to go by rail, *aller en chemin de fer,*
in Heaven, *en Paradis,*

but I saw him in a carriage,
Je l'ai vu dans une voiture,
I met him in the train,
Je l'ai rencontré dans le train,

because the meaning of these sentences shows that the action was accidental.

2. For the same reasons *dans* is used every time the place or the people in a place are well defined, ex.:

Dans cette assemblée,
In this assembly.
Dans le Parlement de 1898,
In the Parliament of 1898.

3. WITHIN or IN meaning WITHIN are translated by *dans,* ex.:

I shall leave in three days,
Je partirai dans trois jours.

IN meaning IN THE SPACE OF is translated by *en,* ex.:

He wrote his play in three days,
Il écrivit sa pièce en trois jours.

4. *Dans* is frequently used where the English language uses OUT OF, ex.:

That robin used to eat out of my hand,
Ce rouge-gorge mangeait dans ma main.

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5. DE indicating a passive state means sometimes OF, sometimes FROM or BY: ex.:

tired of long marches,
fatigué (i.e. having enough) *de longues marches.*
tired from long marches,
fatigué (worn out) *de longues marches.*

6. DE is used in many cases where English employs BY: ex.:

Esteemed by everybody,
Estimé de tous.
Taller by a foot,
Plus grand d'un pied.

7. DE sometimes applies to time, ex.:

De nuit,
By night (cf. o'nights).
De mon vivant,
In my life time.
De huit jours,
For a week.

8. DE is frequent where English uses WITH, ex.:

With a tranquil air,
D'un air tranquille.

JUSQU'À:

Jusqu'à or *jusque* corresponds to both TILL and AS FAR AS, ex.:

Till Easter,
Jusqu'à Pâques.
As far as Irvington,
Jusqu'à Irvington.

PAR:

The usual meaning of *par* is BY, ex.:
Painted by me,
Peint par moi;
but *par* also means THROUGH, ex.:
Nous reviendrons par Orléans,
We shall come back through Orleans;
and sometimes IN, ex.:
In such weather,
Par un temps pareil.

CONJUNCTIONS

NE:

Ne is frequently met with in French sentences in which it has no negative sense and is apt to mislead the English-speaking reader entirely. For instance, *à moins qu'il ne vienne* seems at first sight to mean *à moins qu'il ne vienne pas*, UNLESS HE DOES NOT COME, but in reality it means exactly the reverse: UNLESS HE COMES. *Ne* is there only because *à moins que* demands its presence.

Ne is thus used without a negative sense in the following cases:

1. After À MOINS QUE and DE PEUR QUE, ex.:
   Restez de peur qu'il ne vienne,
   Stay lest he should come.

2. After AVANT QUE, ex:
   Avant que le Congrès ne se réunisse,
   Before Congress meets.

3. After QUE.... meaning SINCE, ex.:
   It is three days since I saw you,
   Voilà trois jours que je ne vous ai vu.

4. After the comparative, ex.:
   He is taller than I thought,
   Il est plus grand que je ne croyais.

5. After verbs indicating fear, doubt, despair, denial, or hindering, ex.:
   I am afraid you imagine....
   Je crains que vous n'imaginiez....

6. After the second NI in a sentence including *ni... ni*, ex.:
   He neither spoke nor smiled,
   Il ne parla ni ne sourit.

QUE:

Let it be remembered that *que* sometimes means HOW MUCH, HOW MANY, ex.:
   How much noise! how many people!
   Que de bruit! que de gens!
also that in French proverbs handed down in old language it means *ce que*, ex.:
   Advienne que pourra,
   Come what may.

The chief meanings of QUE, a conjunction, are the following:

1. *Que* at the beginning of an exclamative sentence means HOW! ex.:
   How beautiful it is!
   Que c'est beau!

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7. *Que* after an imperative frequently means *afin que,* THAT, ex.:

Venez que je vous dise,
Come here that I may tell you.

8. *Que....ou* means WHETHER....OR, ex.:

Whether you approve or disapprove,
Que vous approuviez ou que vous blâmiez.

QUELQUE:

1. *Quelque* generally means HOWEVER, ex.:

However wise you may think yourself,
Quelque sage que vous vous croyiez (subj.).

Note.

a) *Si sage* or *pour sage* followed by the subjunctive or *tout sage* followed by the indicative would also be accurate translations.

b) *Quelques,* an indefinite adjective, means WHATEVER, ex.: WHATEVER CLAIMS YOU MAY HAVE,
Quelques droits que vous ayez.

2. *Quelque,* before a number also means ABOUT: ex.:

Quelque vingt ans,
Some twenty years,
in which case it is invariable.

Note.

It is of the highest importance to observe that the French language has a tendency to suppress conjunctions whenever the meaning of the sentence is clear without them. It is this habit that imparts to French a great deal of its lightness and vivacity as compared with its parent, Latin, or with English. Ex.: THOUGH HE WAS TIRED HE WENT ON, *Fatigué, il continua pourtant,* EVEN THOUGH PEOPLE INSULTED AND SHOVED HIM, HE.... *Insulté, bousculé, il....* EITHER YOU OR I WILL HAVE TO.... *Vous ou moi, nous devrons....*

FREQUENT MISTAKES TO BE CAREFULLY AVOIDED

DO NOT SAY:	SAY:
Angleterre est un pays riche	L'*Angleterre*
Nous buvons de lait	du *lait*
Ils sont grandes forêts là	*Il* y a *de grandes forêts*
Deux beaux chevals	*deux beaux chev*aux
un vieux maison	une vieille *maison*
un sage enfant	*un enfant sage*
un homme américain	*un américain*
Je suis venu plus que dix fois	*plus* de *dix fois*
Elle est beaucoup admirée	très or fort *admirée*
J'ai travaillé un petit	un peu
Il va vendre son maison	*sa maison*
Descendez plusieurs marches	quelques *marches*
J'ai un cent francs ici	*J'ai cent francs*
Président Madison	Le *Président Madison*
Georges cinquième	*Georges* Cinq
Si vous pouvez venir, faites cela	*Faites* le
Moi! faire telle chose!	*Faire* une *telle chose!*
Je pensais de cela	*Je pensais* à *cela*
J'irai là, j'allais là	*J'irai, j'*y *allais*
Parlez encore à eux	*Parlez* leur *encore*
Je lui ai vu hier	*Je* l'*ai vu*
J'ai écrit à elle	*Je* lui *ai écrit*
De qui est cette maison?	À qui *est....?*
Elle est celle du maire	.C'est *au maire*

DO NOT SAY:	SAY:
l'un que j'ai lu (book)	celui que *j'ai lu*
Le monsieur à quel je parlais	*Le monsieur* auquel
Quoi disiez-vous?	Que *disiez-vous?*
Ils crient dans la cour	On *crie....*
Une personne est là, il m'a dit	elle *m'a dit*
Je n'ai cru rien qu'il disait	*Je n'ai rien cru* de ce *qu'il*
J'ai allé, j'allerai	*J'ai été, j'*irai
Il envoira à vous	*Il vous enverra*
Je déteste à punir	*Je détcste punir*
C'*est moi qui a écrit*	C'*est moi qui* ai....
J'ai juste entendu	*Je viens d'apprendre*
J'ai entendu de lui	*J'ai reçu une lettre de lui*
Il pleuvait tout le mois	*Il* a *plu....*
Avertissez-moi quand il arrive	*Quand il* arrivera
Je veux acheter de la laine	*Je* vais *acheter*
Il veut monter tout de suite	*Il* va *monter*
Si vous voudriez venir je resterais	*Si vous* vouliez
Il est trop tard pour moi apprendre le français	*Pour que j'*apprenne
Il est trop tard pour que j'apprends	*Pour que j'*apprenne
Il est trop tard pour que vous apprenne	*Pour que vous* appreniez
Je serai content que vous venez	*Que vous* veniez
Il n'est pas possible qu'il guérira	*Qu'il* guérisse

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DO NOT SAY:	SAY:
J'entendais lui chantant	*Je l'entendais* chanter
Tâchez venir	*Tâchez* de *venir*
Tâchez pour venir	*Tâchez* de *venir*
Je suis prêt pour partir	à *partir*
J'ai plaisir de vous appren-dre	*J'ai plaisir* à.... or *J'ai* le *plaisir* de
J'ai eu deux livres reliés	*J'ai* fait *relier*....
Je ferai lui regretter	*Je lui ferai*
Je veux que vous êtes ici à 5 heures	*Je* désire *que vous soyez*...
Nous étions en Paris	à *Paris*
Le rossignol chante en prin-temps	au *printemps*
Elle n'agit pas comme dame	en dame
un feu en bois brûlait	*un feu* de *bois*
Estimé par tout le monde	de *tout le monde*
Elle dit avec une voix calme	d'*une voix calme*
Nous sommes venus à tra-vers Albany	par *Albany*
en telle tempête	par une *telle tempête*
Je pense oui	*Je pense* que *oui*
Attendez qu'il vient	*Attendez qu'il* vienne.
Il faudra encore retourner	*Il faudra encore* revenir (come again)

CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES

CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES

1. The World War was concluded by the Treaty of Versailles.
2. The final drive was repulsed with heavy loss.
3. They took cover as the bombing-planes passed overhead.

4. He felt the chill of the zero hour.
5. At cockcrow they went over the top.
6. They came face to face in no man's land.
7. He was mentioned in dispatches.
8. Shell-shock put many men out of action.

9. He was gassed and invalided home.
10. He was kept all week on the firing-line.
11. He was adored by the rank and file.
12. He rose from the ranks through sheer ability.
13. He took more chances than any other flier.
14. His plane side-slipped and went into a nose dive.
15. The squadron returned to its base after the air-raid.
16. He became one of the leading allied aces.
17. He was killed while looping the loop.
18. The car skidded into the ditch.
19. They went for a spin in his high-powered roadster.
20. He was delayed for an hour by a blowout.
21. His motor stalled as he went into high.

22. He pleaded guilty and was fined for speeding.
23. He was suddenly recalled by wireless.
24. I sent him a wire declining the offer.
25. She rang him up but was cut off while talking.
26. He was unable to put through the call.

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CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

27. "Busy" or "Don't Answer" was the invariable reply.

28. He hung up and left the booth.
29. They fought for the freedom of the seas.
30. The self-determination of peoples was at stake.
31. They believed in open covenants openly arrived at.
32. He considered the League of Nations a supergovernment.

33. The treaty embodied the famous fourteen points.
34. The mandates were apportioned among the Great Powers.
35. The balance of power was the keynote of the old diplomacy.
36. The divine right of kings passed into the discard.
37. A plebiscite was held to determine their national preferences.
38. A buffer state was suggested as a safeguard.
39. We cannot disarm without protective guarantees.
40. Reconstruction in the devastated area hinged on the size of the indemnity.
41. All the world longs for an agreement on disarmament.
42. Trade rivalry leads to an increased budget.

43. A high protective tariff apparently favors home industries.
44. Foreign exchange fluctuated enormously after the armistice.
45. Currency inflation had reached a maximum.
46. Many European bond issues are a good buy at present exchange rates.
47. The balance of trade was now in favor of the United States.

CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

27. "Pas libre" ou "on ne répond pas" fut la réponse invariable.
28. Il raccrocha les récepteurs et quitta la cabine.
29. Ils se battirent pour la liberté des mers.
30. Le droit des peuples à disposer d'eux-mêmes était en jeu.
31. Ils croyaient à la diplomatie ouverte.
32. La Ligue des *N*ations lui paraissait un sur-gouvernement.
33. Le Traité engloba les fameux quatorze points.
34. Les mandats furent partagés entre les grandes puissances.
35. L'equilibre des puissances était le mot d'ordre de l'ancienne diplomatie.
36. Le droit divin des rois fut rejeté.
37. Un plébiscite détermina leurs préférences nationales.
38. Un état-tampon fut suggéré comme protection.
39. *N*ous ne pouvons désarmer sans garanties.
40. La reconstitution des pays dévastés dépendait du montant de l'indemnité.
41. Le monde entier souhaite un accord pour le désarmement.
42. La rivalité commerciale conduit au grossissement des budgets.
43. Un fort tarif protectionniste semble favoriser les industries du pays.
44. Après l'armistice les changes étrangers varièrent extraordinairement.
45. L'inflation fiduciaire avait atteint le maximum.
46. Beaucoup de valeurs Européennes sont un bon achat avec le change actuel.
47. La balance commerciale était alors en faveur des Etats Unis.

CURRENT TWENTIETH CENTURY PHRASES (Continued)

48. Supremacy in world trade depends upon shippin power.
49. Many vessels are being made over into oil-burners.

50. Light cruisers may come to replace capital ships.

51. Fast destroyers are needed for coast defence.
52. They employed smoke-screens by way of camouflage.
53. The farmers were opposed to daylight saving.
54. Ragtime airs were all the fashion at that time.
55. He was a constant patron of the movies.
56. It was probably the best photoplay of the season.
57. Woman suffrage was everywhere victorious.
58. Prohibition delighted the drys and enraged the wets

59. Nearly all the unions voted to go on strike.
60. Many of the workers advocated direct action.
61. Capital and labor are economically dependent upon each other.
62. He made his appeal to the extreme radical wing.
63. The labor party was definitely in favor of government control.
64. The surtax on large incomes was especially heavy.
65. The tax on necessaries increased the high cost of living.
66. High prices brought about a large reduction in sales.
67. Unemployment forced many deserving men onto the streets.
68. Government works were started as a relief measure.
69. Several ex-kings sought domicile in Switzerland.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX V

Polite Formulas - Letter Writing

The French use the words *Monsieur* (to men), *Madame* (to married women), and *Mademoiselle* (to unmarried women) more freely than is done with the corresponding terms in English. For instance the tenants of a house call the concierge (janitor) and his wife *Monsieur* and *Madame;* the clientèle of restaurants where women are employed call the waitress *Mademoiselle. Monsieur votre père, Mademoiselle votre fille, Monsieur le Docteur,* are often used where we simply say "your father", "your daughter", "Doctor."

The French say *ma femme, mon mari,* never *Madame* or *Monsieur* So and so.

It is not good form in French to add the family name to Monsieur, Madame, or Mademoiselle in addressing people unless one has to do so in order to attract their attention.

Titles are not added in speaking to titled women, except princessess, who can be called "princesse" or Madame; also, they are not generally added in speaking to titled men, who are simply called *Monsieur* except by their inferiors. However, a duke is addressed as *Monsieur le Duc* and a prince as *"Prince."* Priests are called *Monsieur l'Abbé,* Bishops are called *Monseigneur,* nuns are called *ma chère sœur* or *ma sœur.* Officers can be called *Monsieur* without any offence when one does not know their rank. When one knows army men well it is customary to address them as *capitaine, colonel, général,* etc., although their subordinates say, *mon capitaine, mon colonel,* etc.

*
* *

Letter-writing is, generally speaking, more formal in French than in English.

Full titles are used on superscriptions:

Monsieur le Docteur Récamier
Monsieur le Marquis d'Argentan
Monsieur le Général de Castelnau.

Professors do not like being called *Monsieur le Professeur,* which sounds German: they are called *Monsieur.* However, professors of medicine are often called *Professeur So and So* or *cher maître* in conversation.

There is no coldness in beginning letters with just *Monsieur* or *Madame,* and it requires intimacy to say *chère Madame.*

The following will be safely used in signing one's self.

To people one regards as one's superiors: *Veuillez croire, Monsieur* or *Madame, à mon profond respect,* or *à mes sentiments respectueux,* or, with a nuance of affection, *à mes sentiments respectueux et dévoués.*

To one's equals: *Croyez, Monsieur, à ma considération distinguée,* or *Recevez, Monsieur, l'assurance de mes meilleurs sentiments.*

To friends: *Bien à vous, affectueusement à vous, cordialement à vous.*

Letters to inferiors are often written in the third person, ex.: *M. Lebrun prie M. Durand de lui renvoyer les papiers qu'il a laissés lundi.*

To officials, etc., whose position is not known to be exceptionally high, a convenient formula is: *Recevez, Monsieur, mes civilités.* This form is also used in business letters.

APPENDIX VI

Advice

In translating from English into French:

Do not write a single word in your copy-book before reading and re-reading the English text till you are sure of the meaning of every word.
Do not write a single word before having translated mentally the whole passage, referring to the dictionary only when you are sure that the French word is unknown to you.
Read the dictionary carefully, not confining yourself to the line or two which seem likely to help in "making sense", but reading the whole article.
Write legibly, leaving plenty of space between your lines for neat corrections.
Re-read.

In translating from French into English:

Read and re-read five or six times before even consulting the dictionary.
Do not write a single word before feeling ready to translate VIVA VOCE correctly and even elegantly.
Avoid literalness when it is barbarous. Do not translate *il fut mis au pied du mur* by "he was pushed to the foot of the wall", but by "he was driven into a corner", which is the corresponding idiom.
Always think of harmony, especially when you translate poetry.

In composing essays:

Do not write one line, save notes, before having thought out the subject so carefully that you could treat it VIVA VOCE. When this has been done, write your whole essay at a stretch, leaving blank or in English the words you would have to look up. Consult the dictionary only when your first draft is complete.
To sum up, never write anything about which mental preparation has not made you sure. This will not only teach you the art of writing coherently and correctly, it will teach you foresight in planning and conscienciousness in seeking after truth.

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